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A STUDY OF ENGLISH PROGRAMS IN SELECTED HIGH SCHOOLS WHICH
CONSISTENTLY EDUCATE OUTSTANDING STUDENTS IN ENGLISH.

SQUIRE, JAMES R. * APPLEBEE, ROGER K.

GFF21301 UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS, URBANA

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BY IDENTIFYING AND STUDYING SECONDARY ENGLISH PROGRAMS WHICH WERE
REPORTED TO BE OUTSTANDING, THE INVESTIGATORS SOUGHT TO IDENTIFY
CHARACTERISTICS OF SUPERIOR PROGRAMS WHICH MIGHT BE EMULATED IN
OTHER SCHOOLS. TO GUIDE STAFF MEMBERS IN PLANNING, 12 HYPOTHESES
WERE FORMULATED. THE METHOD USED WAS A SERIES OF CASE STUDIES OF
INDIVIDUAL ENGLISH PROGRAMS. STUDENT GROUPS WERE MATCHED,
INSTRUMENTS CREATED FOR MEASUREMENT, AND OBSERVERS SELECTED AND
PREPARED. THE FINDINGS PERTAINING TO THE 12 HYPOTHESES PROVIDED ONLY
A PARTIAL SUMMARY OF THE OVERALL RESULTS. OTHER FINDINGS INDICATED
THAT MANY OF THE PROGRAMS EVALUATED WERE FAR WEAKER THAN THEY SHOULD
BE. (TC)

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE
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WHICH CONSISTENTLY EDUCATE OUTSTANDING STUDENTS IN ENGLISH

Cooperative Research Project No. 1994

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James R. Squire

Roger K. Applebee

University of Illinois
Urbana, Illinois

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and Welfare.

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PREFACE

This Study of high school programs known to be achieving success in English was cosponsored by the National Council of Teachers of English and conducted for the most part by members of the faculties in English and education at the University of Illinois. The report is based on case studies of English programs in 158 high schools of 45 different states. Although the basis for selection precluded that the schools be typical, many of the problems and practices identified are not unlike those in schools large and small throughout the nation.

During the three-and-a-half years required to collect and analyze the data, the work of the primary investigators was supported continuously by important contributions from two graduate assistants, Robert A. Lucas from the Department of English and Joseph W. Thomson from the College of Education. Their contributions to both the field observations and the final analysis of the data were incisive and essential.

Mrs. Bobby Lark Wilson, project secretary and administrative assistant, not only supervised arrangement for the field visits, but also the typing of the final manuscript. Mrs. Patricia Martin was invaluable in supervising machine processing of various data, Jonathan Corbin assisted with the editing, and Gregory White tabulated data.

A national advisory committee, appointed by the National Council of Teachers of English, provided wise guidance during the early phases of the Study when instruments were being designed, and assisted in the interpretation of the data. Members included John J. DeBoer, University of Illinois; Lloyd Dull, Canton Public Schools, Ohio, representing the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development; Robert Foose, Westfield High School, New Jersey, representing the National Association

of Secondary-School Principals; Lou L. LaBrant, Dillard University; Henry C. Meckel, San Jose State College; Floyd Rinker, Commission on English, College Entrance Examination Board; and Edwin Sauer, Chicago State Teachers College South.

Many individuals were consulted with respect to the project design, the selection of the schools, and the interpretation of data. Early in the Study, Dora V. Smith, Alfred H. Grommon, and Hilda Taba gave generously of their time and suggestions. Lee J. Cronbach provided needed assistance with sampling procedures. Robert W. Rogers, then Head of the Department of English, now Dean of the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, offered both encouragement and specific suggestions. Among others whose advice and interest sustained the investigators throughout the Study were Leo J. Ruth, Doris V. Gunderson, Francis A. J. Ianni, Michael Shugrue, John H. Fisher, Margaret Ryan, and Albert R. Kitzhaber. Sister M. Philippa Coogan, B. V. M., having herself completed a study of the teaching of English in selected diocesan schools, met with the staff members to compare observations.

Special appreciation is due the following seventeen members of the faculty of the University of Illinois and the headquarters staff of the National Council of Teachers of English without whose enthusiastic participation in field visits and observations the Study would have been impossible: William Curtin, John Erickson, William H. Evans, Robert F. Hogan, J. N. Hook, James McCrimmon, Stanton Millet, Frank Moake, Priscilla Tyler, Jerry L. Walker, Harris W. Wilson, Robert Lacampagne, James Lyon, Roger E. Martin, Enid M. Olson, Robert W. Rogers, and Robert S. Whitman.

Above all we are indebted to the department chairmen, English faculties, and principals of the 158 cooperating high schools, whose cooperation and interest made the work of the researchers both infinitely varied and personally rewarding.

J.R.S.
R.K.A.

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CHAPTER I

THE PURPOSE AND DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The year 1961 found professional leaders in English vigorously engaged in a reappraisal of ends, means, and teaching conditions. Epitomized by the publication of The National Interest and the Teaching of English,¹ the movement reflected the concern of many professional leaders that only frank, public assessment of the current state of English teaching, coupled with bold, decisive action, would stimulate widespread curriculum reform. The efforts of the Commission on English of the College Entrance Examination Board and the careful discussion of the statement on "The Basic Issues and the Teaching of English,"² published by four national societies, only accelerated the trend. With the development of a plan for curriculum study centers in English and with expanded support for research in teaching, action was taken by the United States Office of Education which seemed likely to promote gradual change and improvement. Still, even with the beginning of these long range efforts to strengthen teaching, professional leaders asked whether more could not be done immediately. Is it not possible to ascertain the ways in which stronger schools are already achieving important results in English? What are the characteristics of English programs which are achieving commendable results? The present study is an attempt to seek answers to such questions. By identifying and studying secondary English programs which are reported to be outstanding, the investigators seek to identify characteristics of superior programs which might be emulated in other schools.

¹Committee on National Interest, The National Interest and the Teaching of English (Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1961).

²The Basic Issues in the Teaching of English. Supplement to College English, XXI, No. 1 (October, 1959).

The selection of superior high school English departments posed immediate difficulties. No research studies have been made which provided definitive answers. However, some criteria were suggested in a questionnaire study by J. N. Hook of the characteristics of high schools which have produced outstanding English students as cited in the Achievement Awards program of the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE).³ The NCTE program is a national attempt to identify the superior high school graduates in English. At the time of this study, some 6,000 or 7,000 high schools were nominating candidates. The winners were determined by statewide committees, largely college teachers of English, following directions from NCTE. Considered were various specimens of each nominee's writing; his scores on two standardized tests, one a college level test of grammar, usage, and composition skills, the other a test of ability to read and interpret literature. In addition, the state judging team considered letters of recommendation from teachers and school administrators. The maximum number of winners in each state was the number of that state's Representatives in Congress. Hook's questionnaire survey clearly suggested that the English programs in the schools producing winners and runners-up in this annual program differed in certain respects from conventional English programs. Assuming that superior English departments are those that consistently produce some students who are superior in English, the investigators determined to examine in depth the programs of those schools which graduate students receiving Achievement Award citations year after year.

But basing a national study of this kind solely on results of the NCTE Achievement Awards program seemed unduly restrictive. Consequently, once the

³ J. N. Hook, "Characteristics of Award-Winning High Schools," English Journal, L, No. 1 (January, 1961), 9-15.

schools consistently recognized by this program had been identified, the project staff attempted to match them with an equal number of comparable schools with highly regarded programs in English. In securing the names of these schools with excellent reputations in English, advice was sought from professors of English and education in state universities, including directors of freshman composition and supervisors of student teachers who visit schools; from the officers of regional and local English organizations affiliated with NCTE; and from consultants in state departments of education. The procedures used in selecting and matching the schools are described later in this chapter. What resulted was a basic group of 116 high schools located in 45 states which seemed representative of programs with reputations for achieving outstanding results in English.

To the basic 116 schools were added during the second and third year of the study some 42 additional schools--19 schools engaged in experimental English programs, 7 Catholic schools, 9 independent schools, and 7 comprehensive high schools in large cities. Schools in these categories were not adequately represented in the initial sampling of 116 schools. As the investigators became interested in pursuing certain ideas, such as the impact of experimentation on English programs, such additions became mandatory. A comparison of the programs in the schools in the basic sampling with programs discovered in large cities, in independent schools, and in Catholic schools also seemed important. A request to extend the Study to include additional schools was approved by the Cooperative Research Bureau, United States Office of Education. In selecting additional schools in the special categories, the project staff solicited recommendations for schools from the national advisory committee, appointed by the National Council of Teachers of English, and from national specialists in curriculum development, Catholic education, and English in independent schools. The

superintendents of six great city school systems were told the purpose of the study--the identification of characteristics of English programs in schools known to be achieving important results--and asked to select one of their schools for study by the project staff. Thus, the total sampling of 158 schools includes programs which consistently produce superior students in English as measured by the NCTE Achievement Awards program, schools of good reputation in English identified by university professors, state education department personnel, and professional leaders in the several states, and selected schools of various kinds identified by national specialists as having strong English programs. The names of these cooperating schools are presented in Appendix A.

Through classroom observation, individual and departmental interviews, group meetings with teachers and students, and the use of specially designed questionnaires and check lists, the investigators developed a comprehensive approach to assess and report on the English programs in these schools. Because of its purposes and methods of selection, as well as its cosponsorship by NCTE, the project was called the National Study of High School English Programs and that term, or the abbreviations, the Study or simply the project, are used interchangeably throughout this report.

The Anticipated Findings

To guide staff members in planning instruments as well as to provide a focus for the final report, the investigators advanced twelve hypotheses which they believed to be characteristics of strong secondary English programs. These hypotheses were based on a considered evaluation of the characteristics of Award-Winning Schools discussed by Hook;⁴ a check list of characteristics of junior and senior high school English programs developed by the NCTE Commission on

⁴Hook, loc. cit.

the English Curriculum;⁵ and reports and recommendations from other committees, commissions, and publications of NCTE, the Commission on English, and other groups. The following statement of these guiding hypotheses also includes an indication of some of the ways in which the project staff anticipated that evidence to prove or disprove each assertion would be collected. The specific efforts made to focus attention on staff observers to these concerns are indicated in the Handbook to Visitation and Observation presented in Appendix C. However, as the discussion of collection and treatment of data presented in this chapter makes clear, the investigators, in considering any particular aspect of the programs, were guided by the combined findings of all interviews, observations, and questionnaires, rather than by the results of any single measure.

Guiding Hypotheses

In schools considered to have strong departments of English, we would expect superiority in the following characteristics:

1. English teachers will be well prepared in English, will be active in professional organizations, and will make use of opportunities for continuing their education through inservice training, sabbatical leave programs or extension school services. (To be measured by responses to items on questionnaires; by interviews with principals, department chairmen, selected teachers, and by the number of recipients of fellowships and awards.)
2. Literature programs will not be confined to a single anthology, but there will be evidence of wide reading of many kinds of good books such as library withdrawals, ample classroom libraries and guided individual reading programs. Books will not only be prevalent but accessible. (To be measured by direct observation of facilities and classroom procedures; check lists on questionnaires for librarians and teachers; reading questionnaires; interviews with librarians and students; evidence of interaction of English department and library.)
3. There will be a perceptibly good "intellectual climate" in all aspects of the schools. More emphasis will be placed on ideas and

⁵Commission on the English Curriculum, "A Check List for Evaluating the English Program in the Junior and Senior High School," English Journal, LI, No. 4 (April, 1962), 273-282.

processes of thought than on rote learning. (To be measured by classroom observation, student interviews and questionnaires, evidence of inter-relationships between departments, evidence of successful student-led activities related to subject areas, sampling of assignments.)

4. Teachers will provide not only for frequent and varied writing experiences, but for meaningful motivation, for careful correction of writing and thinking, and for supervised revision of papers. (To be measured by classroom observation, interviews with teachers, departmental interview, evidence available in courses of study, and direct review of students' writing.)

5. Schools will reveal variety in methods and materials of instruction for different groups of students. Teachers will have considerable latitude in choosing materials of instruction. There will be evidence of experimentation and innovation in the kinds of instruction. (To be assessed by studying methods and purposes of grouping of classes, elective programs; use of large-small group instruction and other approaches indicated in the course of study, departmental interviews, student interviews, and classroom observation.)

6. Language, literature and composition will be taught in appropriate proportion and not as separate entities. Instruction will be coordinated and sequential. (To be measured by evaluation of courses of study, classroom observation, concept check list, questionnaires.)

7. Schools will provide comprehensive instruction in the skills of reading for all pupils and, in addition, special instruction for pupils whose need and ability warrants more individualized procedures. (To be measured by classroom observation, courses of study, departmental interviews, issues questionnaire, departmental meetings.)

8. There will be in general a favorable climate for teaching as evidenced by appropriate salaries; good pupil-teacher ratios; efficient, pleasant facilities and school plant; and comparative freedom from burdensome clerical or policing obligations. Teachers will reflect positive attitudes toward teaching at all levels and administrators will respect the professional integrity of their teachers. Though teachers will vary in their methods and approaches to teaching, there will be interaction and a considerable degree of unanimity in their efforts to deal with common problems. (To be measured through questionnaires and interviews with principal, department head, selected teachers; observation in classes; meetings with students and departmental meeting.)

9. There will be a reasonable and a professional approach to the supervision of teachers. Subject-oriented supervisors will work constructively with beginning teachers and help coordinate the entire program. Supervisors will be given considerable scope and responsibility in the hiring of new teachers and in writing the English program. Appropriate time for such supervision will be given to the department heads. English teachers will be organized in a department led by a capable and resourceful department chairman. (To be measured by department head interview and questionnaire, principal interview, interview with teachers.)

10. Within the English department there will be some unique dedicated teachers who enthusiastically motivate student achievements. (To be measured by student interviews, individual teacher questionnaire, classroom observation, principal interview.)

11. Schools which have strong English programs for college bound students will also make special accommodations for the interests and abilities of terminal students. They will therefore have fewer dropouts. (To be measured by interviews, observation, discussions with counselor and administrators, interviews with advanced and terminal students, reading questionnaire.)

12. Philosophy and substance of the English program will reflect changing social and educational patterns of our times. The impact of technological innovations as they affect our society will be apparent in the content and methods of teaching English. The English curriculum will be subject to constant reevaluation in the light of our changing society. (To be measured by interviews with chairman and principal, classroom observation, study of course of study, departmental interview.)

Related Research

Only a limited number of studies have attempted to survey and report prevailing curricular programs in English. Hook recently summarized the characteristics of English programs of 745 schools and suggested the potential value of a study of selected schools in depth.⁶ In 1958 Jewett surveyed printed courses of study in English from 285 schools and drew appropriate conclusions, but made no attempt to visit schools or to identify programs which had achieved effective results.⁷

Earlier studies of school programs which included an analysis of courses of study and visitation to schools were conducted by Dora V. Smith⁸ and Robert C. Pooley.⁹ Valuable and influential when reported but long since out of date,

⁶Hook, loc. cit.

⁷Arno Jewett, The English Language Arts in the Secondary School (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education, 1958).

⁸Dora V. Smith, Evaluating Instruction in Secondary School English (Chicago: National Council of Teachers of English, 1941).

⁹Robert C. Pooley, The Teaching of English in Wisconsin (Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1948).

these studies attempted to provide a comprehensive review of selected programs and instructional patterns of many kinds. The present study differs from these in its emphasis on studies in depth of a limited number of school programs selected because of their reported success in providing an excellent education in English.

Certain recent studies have attempted to examine the conditions under which English is taught, one phase of the present research. Questionnaires were used in the two national surveys published by the National Council of Teachers of English, The National Interest and the Teaching of English¹⁰ and The National Interest and the Continuing Education of Teachers of English.¹¹ In Kentucky a recent statewide survey combined data from questionnaire with data obtained from school visits.¹² In the field of English, however, no attempt has been made nationally to subject a selected group of school programs to searching analysis through questionnaire, interview, classroom, and other approaches. In effect, what is contemplated in this research is a series of case studies of individual English programs.

The Selection of the Sample

The quality of the product produced by public schools, according to several established studies, varies with school size, geographic location, socio-economic level of the drawing population, per pupil expenditure (which

¹⁰Committee on National Interest, loc. cit.

¹¹Committee on National Interest, The National Interest and the Continuing Education of Teachers of English (Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1964).

¹²Robert Newman Grise, The English Teacher in Kentucky, Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, University of Kentucky, XXXVII, No. 1 (September, 1964).

varies to some extent with salary schedules), and the population density of the drawing area.¹³ Given that these factors do influence the quality of students produced by a school, little is to be gained by another survey of the gross effects of these variables. The investigators therefore decided to hold these factors as nearly constant as possible so that differences in the quality of the educational product produced by the school groups could more reasonably be attributed to differences internal to the schools.

The most desirable means of providing this control is through construction of a sample to control the variables. Accordingly, the investigators matched as closely as possible two groups of schools on the six dimensions listed above-- schools which consistently produced Achievement Awards winners, schools of equal reputation which had not produced winners. The fit was made approximate but it enabled the investigators to compare the two groups. Since the factors of geographic representation and percent of students going on to college determine the degree to which the study may be considered comprehensive, the investigators also attempted to equate the distribution of college bound graduates across the two groups. In effect then, the two groups were approximately equated on (1) size of graduating class, (2) per pupil expenditure, (3) geographic region, (4) minimum teachers' salaries, (5) rural-urban balance, (6) percent of students going on to college, and (7) occupational profile of the drawing area.

Sampling Procedure

The proposal submitted to the United States Office of Education called for a survey of practices in schools consistently producing NCTE Achievement Award winners. At the suggestion of that office, this initial proposal was

¹³ John C. Flanagan et al, Studies of the American High School, Monograph No. 2, Cooperative Research Division Project 226, U. S. Office of Education, December 1962.

expanded to include a comparison of these practices with those in schools of good reputation not producing award winners. Operationally, this produced two populations of schools, those schools producing award winners in at least four of the five years between and including 1958 and 1962 and the complement of population--those highly regarded in their regions not producing award winners in at least four years during the specified five year period.

It should be noted at the outset, that this criterion does not imply the superiority or inferiority of any given school in either population. A brief glance at the history and nature of the awards as well as the contest policies of schools should make this apparent. First, the NCTE Awards are a relatively recent innovation, administered at the state level. Only during the last few years have many schools begun to enter the contest on a consistent basis. The total number of schools entering the contest has grown from roughly 4,000 applying schools in its second year to approximately 7,000 in 1963. Second, some schools refrain from entering such events as a matter of policy. Thus it is apparent that the second population will have at least some members who could have been members of the first as measured by some other independent index of student achievement in English.

Initially, eighty-nine schools were identified from files maintained by the National Council of Teachers of English of schools consistently producing Achievement Award winners. These eighty-nine schools had produced at least one award winner in four out of the previous five years. A general letter containing the names of these schools by states was then sent to supervisory personnel, directors of college composition programs, officers of state English associations, and others knowledgeable about the reputation of high school English programs in each of the states represented on the list. These people were asked to identify the schools in that state which were similar to

the ones listed and possessing good reputations in English. Ultimately this produced a list of some 319 schools with subgroups associated with particular schools in the initial population, the schools with Award winners. A questionnaire (See Appendix B, Instrument 1) with a covering letter soliciting the cooperation of the schools was then sent to all schools in the two populations. Information culled from the returned questionnaires was then used as a basis for determining the fifty-four pairs most closely matched on the demographic variables listed above. Subsequent withdrawal of one of the schools has since reduced these to fifty-three pairs.

Because the pairing decisions were made on the basis of approximate fit rather than perfect matches on all seven dimensions, justification of any claim to the identity of the two groups must depend upon whether or not the composite difference created by these seven variables can be expected to produce differences in characteristics under investigation.

Geographic Distribution

The geographic distribution of the sampling was basic; had location not been considered, a disproportionate number of schools might have come from certain midwestern and eastern suburban locations. Unlike the other dimensions, no pairing was allowed where both schools were not from the same geographic region of the country. In fact, in most cases pairs were made within the same state. This matching yielded fifty-three pairs of schools distributed nationally as shown in Table 1. The geographic regions used here are United States Census Bureau categories. Given the diversity of curricular objectives prevalent in the nation, a breakdown by these geographic regions seems to provide a reasonable basis for comparing individual school practices with those observed in particular geographic regions.

Table 1

Geographic Distribution of Paired Schools

Geographic Area	No. of Pairs
Northeast (NE)	4
Middle East (ME)	7
Southeast (SE)	9
Great Lakes (GL)	13
Plains (PL)	7
Southwest (SW)	5
Rocky Mountain (RM)	3
Far West (FW)	5
Total	53

While this survey was made on a very selective group of schools rather than a simple demographically stratified random sample from the nation, it is still of tangential interest to note the comparability of the geographic distribution of schools in the study sample with that in the nation. Table 2 presents the distribution by region as reported by the U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare in 1961.¹⁴ Raw counts have been converted to proportions of the total number of schools in both the nation and the current survey. As can be seen in Table 2, with the exception of the Southeast and Great Lakes, regional representation in this survey varies from that in the nation by an average of about 3 percent. The more considerable difference of 12 percent in the Southeast primarily results from the lack of very small

¹⁴ Edmond A. Ford and Virgil R. Walker, Public Secondary School Statistics of Education in the United States, 1958-1959 Series (Washington, D. C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1961), p. 29.

Table 2

Percentage of Study Schools in Geographic Regions
Compared with All Schools Nationally

	NE	ME	SE	GL	PL	SW	RM	FW	Total
Nation	.039	.101	.295	.124	.178	.118	.038	.057	1.000
Study	.075	.132	.170	.245	.132	.094	.057	.094	.999

schools in the Study. According to the U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare (1961), roughly 34 percent of the total number of southeastern high schools have enrollments under 200. None of these schools appear in the Study. The large difference in the Great Lakes (11.7 percent) is due primarily to the economics of research: since the National Study offices were in Illinois, it was less expensive to visit midwestern schools. The reader should be cautioned at this point that, although this particular distribution does happen to correspond roughly to the distribution of schools in the nation, the findings of the Study are not applicable to all schools in the nation. As will be seen in later sections of this chapter, this Study has primarily sampled from urban and suburban schools of fairly large enrollments. Representation of very small, and/or rural and small town schools is quite sparse and concentrated in a few geographic regions.

Size of Graduating Class

Because the statistic is generally more reliable and, for the purposes of this Study, more meaningful, schools were paired on reported size of graduating class rather than total enrollment. The resulting distributions are compared in Table 3, using a product moment correlation.

The data presented in Table 3 indicate that there is some difference between the groups on this dimension. Whether or not those differences are within tolerable limits is another question. The mean of Group 2 is within

Table 3

Size of Graduating Class

	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	r
Award-Winning Schools	53	459.64	154.603	.616
Non-Award Schools	53	419.72	164.759	

1/2 standard deviation of that of Group 1 and the standard deviations of the two groups are fairly close. The Pearson r computed on the distributions is fairly high at .616 considering schools were simultaneously matched on seven variables. Further, since school population size probably has a discontinuous effect on the school product, differences between these groups may be zero at the level of effect. That is, it seems likely that the quality of students produced by schools differing in enrollment by only 100 or so will not necessarily be different in any measurable sense. This, however, is only speculative.

Percent of College Bound Students

Schools were also matched on the percentage of the graduating class going on to four year colleges. Although there is some distortion here due to the fact that some states (notably California) have very active junior college programs which tend to pull away from the full four year programs, this statistic was held to have the most application in the greatest number of geographic regions. The final comparison of the two groups on this dimension is shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Percentage of Graduates Going on to Four-Year College

	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	r
Award-Winning Schools	52	55.38	17.745	.668
Non-Award Schools	52	52.61	18.857	

The total match on this dimension appears to be very good. Discarding one pair in which one of the schools supplied inaccurate data, the resulting means come within three percentage points of being identical. Standard deviations are also quite close and the resulting product moment correlation seems fairly high.

It should be obvious that percent of graduates going on to college is most properly a product of the quality of the school and the locale of the school. Like several of the characteristics on which schools were matched, percent going on to college is not independent of the other matching characteristics; it constitutes a result of the other characteristics in large measure as opposed to being a partial cause of the quality of the school. As such, it is not usually controlled in a study of this nature but rather is allowed to vary as a function of the variables under investigation. Use of this dimension does have the advantage, however, of providing us the information necessary to insure that schools other than those in which more than 75 percent of the students go on to college will be included in the survey. In connection with this aim, a more detailed breakdown of the distributions on this dimension might be of interest. Table 5 provides that data.

Table 5

Distribution of College Bound Students

	Range	Q ₁	Q ₂	Q ₃
Award-Winning Schools	15-97	40	55	70
Non-Award Schools	15-90	40	50	70

Aside from the fact that the distributions are quite similar, it is interesting to note that at least on this dimension the Study encompasses a fairly broad range of schools. It is only fair to note, however, that as compared to current national averages, this Study is biased in favor of the

academic high school. This is not unexpected inasmuch as schools were selected because they were "known" to be producing high quality college bound students.

Expenditure Per Pupil

A recent study by Flanagan clearly established a relationship between cost per pupil and student performance.¹⁵ How much of this is due to other factors is not known, but it seems reasonable to suppose there is some relationship between student performance and per pupil expenditure itself. In line with this reasoning, this variable was considered in selecting schools for the two populations. A comparison of the distributions of the two groups appears in Table 6.

Table 6

Reported Cost Per Pupil

	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	r
Award-Winning Schools	46	\$536.33	\$257.480	.640
Non-Award Schools	46	483.04	167.022	

Again, obviously spurious data has reduced the reported N somewhat. Although included in the Study, seven pairs of schools could not be included because of inaccurate data obtained from one member of each pair. Means for these two groups seem fairly close but probably greater significance should be attached to the considerable difference between the standard deviations of the groups. The range of expenditures in Group 1 is considerably greater than in Group 2. The correlation between groups appears to be quite high at .640, suggesting (in conjunction with the observed mean and standard deviation) the match between schools tends to be proportional with each school in Group 1 spending about 1.5 times as much money per student as its counterpart in Group 2.

¹⁵ Flanagan, loc. cit.

Teachers' minimum salaries were also used as a basis for matching schools. Although obviously an integral part of the cost per pupil, this variable was treated separately in the sampling and is reported independently here. Table 7 again provides the basic descriptive statistics for this dimension.

Table 7
Minimum Salaries Paid to Teachers

	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	r
Award-Winning Schools	52	\$4,604.27	\$446.31	.656
Non-Award Schools	52	4,593.10	484.36	

In this case the fit was apparently quite good. Means are almost identical as are the standard deviations of the two groups. The suggestion is that, with minor fluctuations, variation in one group is rather closely mirrored in the other.

Socio-Economic Factors

We turn now to the two dimensions on which it has been most difficult to assess the degree of correspondence--the occupational profile of the drawing area and the urban-suburban-rural distribution of students. The difficulty encountered here is primarily a function of the number of categories involved in each variable. The occupational profile initially sent to the high schools contained five categories on the questionnaire. This was later reduced to four by combining the percentages listed for two of the designations. Schools were matched according to their two dominant categories. On the location of homes, a similar matching strategy was employed. The original nine categories were reduced to the two dominant categories listed by each school. This abbreviated profile was then used for matching schools as closely as possible.

The distribution of students' homes is indicated in Table 8, which

presents a complete profile of the two samples without considering either matching or geographic region. Rows represent the primary drawing area and columns represent the secondary drawing area. Since there were nine initial categories, this means that a given school will be presented in one of the eighty-one possible squares. The numbers 1 and 2 are used to designate group membership. Entries are the number of schools having a particular description.

Table 8

Distribution of Secondary School Drawing Areas

	G	UR		UI		UC		SR		SI		SC		Scat- tered		Small Town		RF	
		1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2
Primary	UR 1 2	4	3	4	1	9	8	4	10					2	2				
	UI 1 2			1	2	1													
	UC 1 2	1		1															1
	SR 1 2	2	2			1		7	8	2	1	4	3		3			2	
	SI 1 2																		
	SC 1 2																		
	Sct 1 2	3	2	1				2	2					1	1			1	2
Small Town	1 2								1										
	RF 1 2																1		

UR = urban residential area

UI = urban industrial

UC = urban commercial

SR = suburban residential

SI = suburban industrial

SC = suburban commercial

Scattered = scattered through a city or town

Small Town = town under 5,000

RF = rural farm

Table 8 has been included here to provide some idea of the areas encompassed by the Study. Most important perhaps is the clear indication in the Study schools of a heavy emphasis on urban and suburban residential areas. Forty-four percent of the schools in the Study draw primarily from urban residential areas and 33 percent from suburban residential areas. Second, it should be noted that almost no school in the study draws primarily from small towns or rural farm areas although some 6.6 percent of the schools do draw the second largest percentage of their students from these areas. It is of course to be expected that no schools would be classified as drawing primarily from suburban industrial or commercial areas. Finally, Table 8 makes possible the identification of schools with highly homogeneous student bodies. Schools entered in the diagonal cells are those reporting only one drawing area. Assuming these reports are accurate, about 25 percent of the schools in the Study draw from only one type of area, and have student bodies with considerable similarity of background.

In an effort to introduce some rigor to the process of matching schools on this dimension, the eighty-one possible combinations of drawing areas were rank ordered with respect to the "primarily and secondarily urban residential" category. The assumption was made that all the eight other classifications could be ranked according to their degrees of difference from the urban residential category and if so ranked, would also be ranked with respect to any other category. Thus, if "urban commercial" were ranked third with respect to "urban residential" and "suburban industrial" were ranked sixth, it would be valid to say "suburban industrial" is ranked third with respect to "urban commercial." It was not assumed, however, that the eight intervals were of equal size.

The rank ordering of the eighty-one possible combinations was then used to determine the best match among available alternatives. The matching procedure assumed, of course, that for a given combination, combinations which were an equal number of ranks removed in either direction were equally good matches for the original combination.

It is possible to evaluate the degree of fit resulting from this matching strategy by using a Spearman rank order correlation. Table 9 presents the results of this analysis as well as the median difference between ranks for the fifty-one usable pairs.

Table 9

Variation of Schools Ranked According to Drawing Area

N (pairs)	Quartile deviation of differences in rank between pairs	Me. rank difference	r_s
51	5	7.5	.645

For this analysis, schools within groups were rank ordered according to the value assigned to the school profile from the grid in Table 8. As shown in Table 9, the median difference between the ranks of pairs was 7.5 with a quartile deviation of 5 ranks. Although this comparison is somewhat awkward, it does serve to demonstrate the degree of variation between the distributions. This variation, as further defined by the rank order correlation of .645, is within acceptable limits. Matching on this dimension seems to have been fairly successful.

For reasons that will become apparent, it is not possible to determine the degree of success in matching occupational profiles as precisely as has been possible for the other dimensions involved in constructing these samples. The data used in matching schools on this dimension consisted of the percentage breakdown of the school population into five categories--(1) professional and

managerial, (2) highly skilled occupations, (3) semi-skilled occupations, (4) rural or agricultural occupations and (5) unskilled occupations. As an aid in matching, categories one and two were combined as were three and five. This reduced the amount of information to be treated from five percentages to three. Those schools providing a satisfactory match on graduating class size, minimum salaries, etc., were then culled for the pairs providing the best match on this three-way profile.

The most adequate description of the degree of fit between schools on this profile is provided by the descriptive statistics set out in Table 10. These have been computed separately for each of the three dimensions.

Table 10

The Occupational Classification of School Parents

	Group	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	r
Professional, managerial, and highly skilled	1	51	56.576	18.695	.653
	2	51	54.692	17.901	
Semi-skilled and unskilled	1	51	41.615	20.351	.588
	2	51	43.519	19.195	
Rural and agriculture	1	51	3.846	6.371	.658
	2	51	3.711	7.182	

The data in this table indicate that the three way fit was quite satisfactory. All means and standard deviations are quite close and the degree of relationship expressed by the correlation is fairly high with the exception of the semi-skilled, unskilled aspect of the profile. Actually, the third dimension of the profile would also be rather low were it not for the fact that most schools in the Study listed no rural-agricultural families, thus reducing variation within the groups

while N remained high. If, for example, N were reduced to the number of non-zero pairs, r would have been reduced to something on the order of .4. This seems to suggest that while the occupational profiles of the groups are satisfactorily matched, the best fit was achieved on the professional-managerial-highly skilled axis.

In summary then, two groups seem to be fairly well matched on all seven of the variables listed at the beginning of the chapter. Means and standard deviations are generally quite close and correlations between the two groups tend to run about .65. Probably the least satisfactory match was achieved on the size of graduating classes. For the purposes of this Study, the two groups appear to be well matched. These 106 schools, plus two additional unmatched schools (whose pairings dropped after the Study had begun) formed the basic schools. Eight additional pilot schools were used to perfect instruments and approaches, making a total of 116 schools studied in the basic phase of the Study. Some 42 schools were added in the extension of the Study to include Catholic, independent, experimental, and large city schools, making a total of 158 separate schools.¹⁶

Creation of Instruments

The schools having been selected for study, the project staff next turned attention to the creation of questionnaires, interview schedules, observation guides, and overall directions to guide the study of English programs. Available reports and instruments were carefully considered, such as "Evaluative Criteria" of the National Study of Secondary School

¹⁶The reader should not be confused by apparent inconsistencies regarding the number of schools in the sample. On many of the tables which follow, N will usually be less than the 116 original schools or 158 total since useful data were not always available from each of the cooperating schools. Thus N might be 78 or 102 or any other number less than the total.

Evaluation,¹⁷ the approaches reported by Dora V. Smith in Evaluating Instruction in Secondary School English,¹⁸ and the summary of research on classroom observation reported in the Handbook on Research in Teaching.¹⁹

Preliminary forms of each instrument were used in visits to eight pilot schools visited during the spring of 1963. As a result of these pilot assessments, forms were revised during the summer of 1963. During the late spring, the various instruments together with recommendations from the project staff, were reviewed by members of the national advisory committee to the Study, appointed by the National Council of Teachers of English.

The various instruments in their final form appear in Appendix No. 2. Fifteen separate instruments were prepared as follows:

Instrument No. 1: High School Characteristics. A questionnaire distributed by mail to school principals to obtain data to use in matching schools.

Instrument No. 2: Student Questionnaire A. A questionnaire distributed to former Award-winning students who had graduated from schools in the Study.

Instrument No. 3: Principal's Questionnaire. A questionnaire distributed in advance of visits to the school.

Instrument No. 4: Department Head Questionnaire. A questionnaire distributed in advance of visits to the school.

Instrument No. 5: Request for Visiting Class. Form developed to request permission to visit classes.

¹⁷ National Study of Secondary School Evaluation, Evaluative Criteria, 1960 Edition (Washington, D. C.: 1960).

¹⁸ Smith, op. cit.

¹⁹ Donald M. Medley and Harold E. Mitzel, "Measuring Classroom Behavior by Systematic Observation," in N. L. Gage (ed.), Handbook on Research in Teaching (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963).

Instrument No. 6: Interview Schedule for Principal. A schedule to guide the initial interview held by school observers.

Instrument No. 7: English Department Head Interview. A schedule to guide the interview with the English chairman.

Instrument No. 8: Concept Check List for Department Head and Student Interviews. A check list to guide discussion with department chairman on the teaching of certain concepts and for class interviews with twelfth grade students.

Instrument No. 9: Interview Schedule for Selected Teacher. Used to guide individual interviews conducted with 438 teachers in the schools.

Instrument No. 10: Interview Schedule for Counselor. Used to structure individual interviews with one of the counselors.

Instrument No. 11: Counselor's Check List of School and Community Characteristics. Questionnaire left with counselors for purpose of obtaining information on community.

Instrument No. 12: Librarian's Questionnaire. Schedule to guide interview with school librarian.

Instrument No. 13: Book List. Check list of books in school library based on list of titles reported as "most significant high school reading experience" by honors graduates now attending college.²⁰

Instrument No. 14: Interview Schedule for Advanced Students. Schedule to guide class interview of twelfth-grade college bound students.

Instrument No. 15: Questionnaire for Advanced Students. Used with college bound students.

²⁰ Robert S. Whitman, "Significant Reading Experiences of Superior English Students," Illinois English Bulletin, Vol. 51, No. 5 (February, 1964), 1-23.

Instrument No. 16: Interview Schedule for Terminal Students. A

guide for questioning of tenth-grade terminal class.

Instrument No. 17: Questionnaire for Terminal Students. A form designed

for use with terminal tenth-grade students.

Instrument No. 18: Group Interview with English Department. A schedule

to guide joint interview of total English department.

Instrument No. 19: Issues in Teaching English. An issues questionnaire

administered immediately before the department meeting.

Instrument No. 20: Student Writing Check List. Used to characterize the

kind of student writing and teacher correction of themes.

Instrument No. 21: Questionnaire for Individual English Teacher. A

printed questionnaire distributed following the visits and mailed to

National Study directly by the teachers.

Instrument No. 22: Reading Questionnaire. A special questionnaire

administered to six selected classes by teachers in the schools and

mailed directly to the National Study.

Instrument No. 23: Classroom Observation Card. A guide to assist

observers in recording impressions.

Instrument No. 24: Summary of Classroom Visitation. Form on which

project observers summarized their impressions of class observation.

Instrument No. 25: Summary of Reaction to School. Form used by observers

to summarize their total impressions of a school.

Instrument No. 26: Questionnaire: Final Examinations. A check list

questionnaire sent to department chairmen to get precise information

concerning frequency and type of examinations used.

In addition to the data secured from these instruments, the investigators also asked schools to furnish at different times the following material needed

in assessing the total English program: (a) a school handbook or guide; (b) an organization chart (if any) indicating staff responsibilities and courses taught; (c) an English course of study (if any), including a statement of objectives; (d) a list of textbooks and literature books used in English; (e) samples of recent midsemester and end-of-the-semester and year examinations; (f) samples of representative student writing and teacher correcting (often reviewed during the course of school visits). Such materials provided important background material to assist observers and members of the project staff in interpreting school programs.

Selection and Preparation of Observers

The regular project staff consisted of the Director, the Associate Director, and two graduate assistants, Robert Lucas, doctoral candidate for a degree in English, and Joseph Thomson, doctoral candidate for a degree in education. As an advanced student of classroom learning, Mr. Thomson was especially helpful in designing certain of the instruments used to guide observation. His assistance with the psychometric analyses, together with consultant assistance from Lee J. Cronbach and Hilda Taba, provided important guidance during the early phases of the Study. All four members of the staff participated in the pilot studies of schools during the spring of 1963 as well as in the subsequent visits.

Ten faculty members of the departments of English and education at the University of Illinois and one member of the national NCTE headquarters staff formed, with the four regular staff members, the basic team of observers for the Study. During the two-year period, six other qualified observers from the University of Illinois and the NCTE staff also participated, serving as substitute observers when schedules could not be arranged to accommodate those

initially participating in the Study. These project observers represented various fields of specialty and interest in English and its teaching. Most had previously taught in public secondary schools, but two had neither teaching experience nor even student experience in public schools; several were specialists in literature and its teaching; others were primarily interested in rhetoric and composition; two had unique interests in the theory and process of language instruction. All were united in an interest in improving the teaching of English; together they formed an impressive team which yielded insights of many kinds. The observers were:

Staff Members:

James R. Squire, Director; Professor of English and Counselor in Teacher Education; Executive Secretary, NCTE

Roger K. Applebee, Associate Director; now Lecturer in English and Associate Dean, College of Liberal Arts and Sciences

Robert A. Lucas, Graduate Assistant

Joseph Thomson, Graduate Assistant; now Assistant Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Victoria

Regular Observers:

William Curtin, Assistant Professor of English

John Erickson, Assistant Professor of Education

William H. Evans, Associate Professor of Education; now Professor of English and Education, Southern Illinois University

Robert F. Hogan, Associate Executive Secretary, NCTE

J. N. Hook, Professor of English and Counselor in Teacher Education

James M. McCrimmon, Professor of the Humanities and Education

Stanton Millet, Associate Professor of English and Associate Dean, Graduate College; now Dean of Students

Frank Moake, Associate Professor of English

Priscilla Tyler, Associate Professor of English

Jerry L. Walker, Assistant Professor of Education

Harris W. Wilson, Professor of English

Supplementary Observers: Robert LaCampagne, Director of Achievement Awards and Special Projects, NCTE

James Lyon, Business Manager, NCTE

Roger E. Martin, Business Manager, NCTE; now Assistant to the Dean, College of Liberal Arts and Sciences

Enid M. Olson, Director of Publication and Public Relations, NCTE

Robert W. Rogers, Professor of English, former Head, Department of English; now Dean, College of Liberal Arts and Sciences

Robert S. Whitman, Supervisor of Student Teachers in English; now Assistant Professor of English Education, University of Wisconsin

During the two-and-a-half years of school visits, observers made 306 visits to the 158 schools of the Study. One hundred and sixteen of these visits were for two days and involved two project observers, one of whom was regularly a member of the staff. Three-member teams visited sixteen schools in the Study, normally the very large schools which did not easily admit to study by a smaller group. Twenty-five schools were visited by only one observer. Although initial plans called for more selective visiting of a limited number of schools, careful scheduling made possible direct assessment of the total group of schools, with the exception of one which voluntarily withdrew during the third year because of unanticipated internal problems.

In preparation for these visits, the staff developed a Handbook for Visitation and Observation. The handbook was designed to explain in detail

the procedures to be followed in visiting the schools, to anticipate problems which might be encountered, and to explain the uses of various instruments. The Handbook is presented in Appendix C. The pilot visits during the first semester enabled the staff to develop a method of approaching departments and of timing interviews, group meetings, and classroom observations so as to secure maximum information in two days. The general outline proposed for each visit is included in the handbook material in Appendix C. To alert observers to the problems and possibilities, three meetings were called by the directors, two prior to any visitation and a third follow-up meeting after a few visits had occurred so that special questions and problems could be considered. Despite the accumulation of vast statistical data in portions of the Study, the independent judgments and insights of the project observers, recorded separately on the various instruments, remain the heart of the Study. The methods of observation developed, tested, and revised provided a way of guiding the observers and assisted them in securing maximum information about the teaching of English in a particular school despite the comparative brevity of the visit.

Treatment of Data

The data accumulated on the basic 116 schools of the Study were treated separately from the data on the additional 42 schools. Thus the bulk of this report deals with impressions based upon depth studies of the 116 schools. Separate chapters at the end of this report present comparative analyses of the teaching of English in large city schools, Catholic schools, independent schools, and in schools engaged in experimentation in English.

That information which could be subjected to analysis on data processing machines was so handled. Questionnaires from 1,331 teachers (Instrument No. 21) and reading questionnaires for 13,291 students (Instrument No. 22) were analyzed in this way. Other statistical data were summarized for each school and

tabulated by hand. When appropriate, means, quartiles, and other measures of distribution and central tendency were computed. Much data yielded to clearest interpretation when translated to percentages; it thus is presented in this form in the appropriate sections of this report.

The interviews with individual teachers and with class and departmental groups became more meaningful as a content analysis of responses indicated concerns which many teachers shared. The summary reactions of observers also yielded to such analysis and revealed some of the arresting impressions reported in Chapter III. Except for this general analysis and the various statistical summaries of classroom observation, the reports from observers are presented descriptively in appropriate sections of this report.

A special problem concerns the comparative data on the fifty-three matched schools, those consistently producing Achievement Award winners, those of good reputation in English without such recognized students. The method of selecting and matching was described earlier in this chapter. The statistical treatment of available data on these schools failed to indicate any significant difference between these groups. Table 11 presents selected comparative data which indicate clearly that the schools within the Study are more alike than like all schools nationally. All other data point to the same conclusion. In the subject matter preparation of teachers, in the participation of teachers in programs of continuing education, in teacher involvement in professional activities, in teaching conditions, in the content stressed in classroom, in methods of teaching--in short in every measure for which comparative data are available, the two groups do not appear different. Even a careful reading of the reports from project observers, who were not told of the differences in the groups, fail to reveal any characteristics unique to one group of schools or the other. In short, the findings do not justify continuing the paired group analysis. Those schools which

Table 11

A Selected Comparison of Teachers in Matched
Groups with Teachers Nationally

Selected Item of Comparison	Award-Winning Schools	Non-Award Schools	Total Schools in Study	National NCTE Sampling*
Percent of Teachers with Undergraduate Major in English	70.8	73.2	71.8	50.5
Percent of Teachers Beginning Teaching with--				
Less than B.A.	5.1	6.8	5.9	11.8
Bachelor's Degree	64.6	63.0	63.8	69.8
B.A. + 15-30 hours	16.5	15.7	16.1	12.4
Master's or Beyond	13.5	14.2	13.8	7.0
Percent of Teachers Participating Recently in--				
Local English Meeting	57.0	51.8	54.7	63.7
State Meeting	34.2	31.8	33.2	37.8
National Meeting	7.8	9.2	8.4	8.2
Voluntary Workshop	26.2	32.5	28.8	41.2
Percent of Teachers Regularly Reading <u>English Journal</u>	85.4	81.4	83.5	44.8
Percent of Teachers Meeting Fewer than 125 Students Daily	52.0	51.5	51.8	43.6
Percent of Teachers Members in NCTE	53.8	50.5	52.4	32.6

*Figures drawn from Committee on National Interest, The National Interest
and the Teaching of English, Champaign, Ill., 1964.

consistently graduate Achievement Award winners are not significantly different from those schools of good reputation which do not graduate such students. Apparently, the outside specialists when asked to select schools with good reputation in English, identified schools so similar in measurable characteristics to the schools with Achievement Award winners that the two could not be separated. The question may well be raised concerning whether, if differences do not exist between the groups, such differences actually exist between the schools in the

Study as a whole and other schools nationally. Table 11 suggests that these differences may be considerable. Chapter II compares the characteristics of schools in this Study with the characteristics of English departments nationally and indicates clear and significant differences. The findings seem to justify the selection of the English programs of the National Study as characteristic of the better English programs in the country, even though the internal paired analysis does not reveal significant differences within the total group. To simplify the presentation of findings, the comparative analysis of the paired groups has been eliminated from the presentation; the discussion of these pairings was retained earlier in this chapter because of the insights it offered into the size, geographic, and demographic characteristics of all schools in the Study. In the discussion which follows, data on Study schools will be presented only for the total group. The reader should know, however, that the investigators have in every case examined possible differences between the subgroups identified earlier in the chapter.

To be of maximum assistance to schools and curriculum supervisors, the findings are reported under separate topical headings. Characteristics of teachers and teaching conditions are first described, not only because these clearly demonstrate certain significant differences between these schools and others nationally, but because a knowledge of such characteristics is basic in interpreting other findings. A lengthy discussion of the general characteristics of the Study schools follows, including the characteristics seen by teachers and students as well as project observers. Separate chapters devoted to the teaching of literature, composition, and language are followed by a discussion of the administration of departments and the nature of courses of study. The teaching of reading, the personal reading of students, school libraries, and a number of minor problems and issues are also discussed, and the report concludes with separate treatment of the supplementary studies to experimental schools, large city schools, Catholic schools, and independent schools.

CHAPTER II

THE TEACHERS IN THE SELECTED SCHOOLS

The success of any educational program depends in large measure on the quality of its teachers. The staff of the National Study clearly anticipated that in preparation and continuing education, the English faculties of the 116 schools selected for detailed study would be significantly stronger than the faculties of average high schools. This hypothesis proved to be supported by the data collected in the Study.

Questionnaires concerning preparation were obtained from 1,331 teachers in the 116 schools. Additional reactions were obtained by personal interviews with 438 teachers, normally those identified by the principal or the department chairman as being among the stronger teachers in each school. Data concerning teaching conditions were obtained not only from the teachers but from observation in classrooms, interviews with principals and the department chairmen, and in group interviews with the members of the several departments.

Because some understanding of the quality of preparation of the teachers and of the conditions under which they work is essential in interpreting the basic findings of the entire Study, data are presented in this chapter concerning the initial preparation of teachers, the selection of teachers in these schools, their continuing education, their professional activities, and the conditions under which they teach English.

Preparation of the Teachers of English

One of the interesting patterns emerging from the present survey of English programs with excellent reputation is the quality of academic preparation among the teachers in the programs. The most complete recent study of the preparation of high school teachers of English appeared in

The National Interest and the Teaching of English¹ published by the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE). The results of this NCTE survey provide a baseline of typical preparation against which to assess the preparation of the teachers in the present Study. According to the NCTE report, 81.6 percent of the secondary school English teachers began teaching with less than a Bachelor's degree and only 19.3 percent had done any appreciable amount of graduate work prior to beginning to teach. Sixty-seven percent of those teachers completed their undergraduate work in a university or liberal arts college, and 33.2 percent completed their work in a state or teacher's college. Only 50.5 percent of the secondary teachers responding to the NCTE questionnaire had majors in English. More than 22 percent had an undergraduate minor in English. As the NCTE report suggests, these figures are an optimistic statement of the formal preparation of secondary English teachers. Because principals were asked to select teachers within the school to respond to the questionnaire, it seems likely that these figures describe the better teachers in the nation's secondary schools. It does not seem reasonable that principals attempted a carefully balanced distribution of the questionnaires even though asked to do so; if anything, most would be inclined to ask their superior teachers to respond. However, the NCTE sample did include junior high schools. Since that school is often regarded as a more natural extension of the elementary school, many of the English teachers responding to the questionnaire may have majored in elementary education rather than in an academic area like English. Under these circumstances, the data quoted by NCTE seem a conservative estimate of the preparation of English teachers

¹Committee on National Interest, The National Interest and the Teaching of English, loc. cit.

in the high school population. These two conditions need to be considered in evaluating the observed differences in preparation between the teachers in the present survey of superior English programs and those in the more general survey conducted by NCTE.

The teachers surveyed in the present Study prove to be better prepared than the average English teacher responding to the NCTE survey as measured by their level of preparation when beginning full time teaching. Table 12 presents the basic comparison. Considerably fewer teachers in

Table 12

Level of Preparation of Secondary Teachers
of English when Beginning Full Time Teaching

Percentage of Teachers with	Study (n = 1,331)	NCTE Survey (n = 7,296)
Less than B.A.	5.9	11.8
Bachelor Degree	63.9	69.8
B.A. + 15-30 hours	16.2	12.4
Master's Degree	13.7	6.9
Doctor's Degree	0.3	0.1

this Study began teaching with a Bachelor's degree or less than is true nationally. Only 69.8 percent of the present teachers started at this level. In contrast, 30 percent began teaching with fifteen or more hours of graduate training to their credit. Almost 14 percent already possessed a Master's degree when beginning to teach in contrast to only 7 percent in the NCTE survey. There also seem to be some striking differences in the kinds of institutions at which undergraduate work was completed. More than 78 percent of the present teachers' report completed their undergraduate work in universities or liberal arts colleges, as is shown in Table 13. Sixty-eight

percent attended these kinds of institutions nationally. Almost all of the difference here is accounted for in the numbers attending universities. Almost 47 percent of the teachers in the National Study schools completed their undergraduate work in a university while only 31.8 percent of the teachers responding to the NCTE survey attended a university.

Table 13

Type of Institution at Which Teachers
Completed Undergraduate Work

Type of Institution	Study (n = 1,331)	NCTE Survey (n = 7,495)
University	46.8	31.8
Liberal Arts College	31.8	35.9
State College	9.6	15.1
Teacher's College	9.9	18.1
Other	1.9	1.6

Perhaps the most important difference between the preparation of the teachers participating in the present Study and that of the teachers responding to the NCTE questionnaire lies in the subject matter emphasis implied by the distributions of undergraduate majors. Table 14 presents the comparison. Almost 72 percent of the teachers in the present Study noted a major in English. In addition, 28 percent also listed majors in fields related to English such as language, arts, speech, drama, and journalism. Total percentages exceed one hundred because many of these teachers reported double majors, making a clear comparison difficult. The teachers in the present survey were permitted to check as many as three majors while those in the NCTE study were permitted only one selection. Therefore, a direct comparison between the two studies can be obtained by considering

only the first choices of the teachers in this Study. With this limitation, 68.8 percent of the teachers report an undergraduate major in English and 13.2 percent report a major in a field related to English. Thus 82 percent of the English teachers in the schools identified as having superior English programs have an undergraduate major in a field directly related to English as compared to 67.1 percent of the teachers in a more random sample of high schools.

Table 14

Undergraduate Majors Reported by Teachers
(Percentage of teachers reporting)

Field of Major	Study (n = 1,331)	NCTE Survey (n = 7,495)
<u>English</u>	<u>71.8</u>	<u>50.5</u>
<u>Related Fields</u>	<u>28.2</u>	<u>16.6</u>
Language Arts Combination	5.0	3.1
Speech	8.0	3.7
Drama, Theatre	4.6	1.3
Journalism	3.2	0.9
Area Major including English	7.4	7.6
<u>Fields Unrelated to English</u>	<u>39.7</u>	<u>32.8</u>
Education	14.9	9.0
Unrelated Area Major	3.2	3.6
Other Subjects	21.6	20.2

One would expect that if more of the teachers in the present Study possessed undergraduate majors in English than in the national sample, fewer teachers would report minors in English. Such is the case but not to the extent that one would expect (Table 15). Whereas 22.6 percent of the

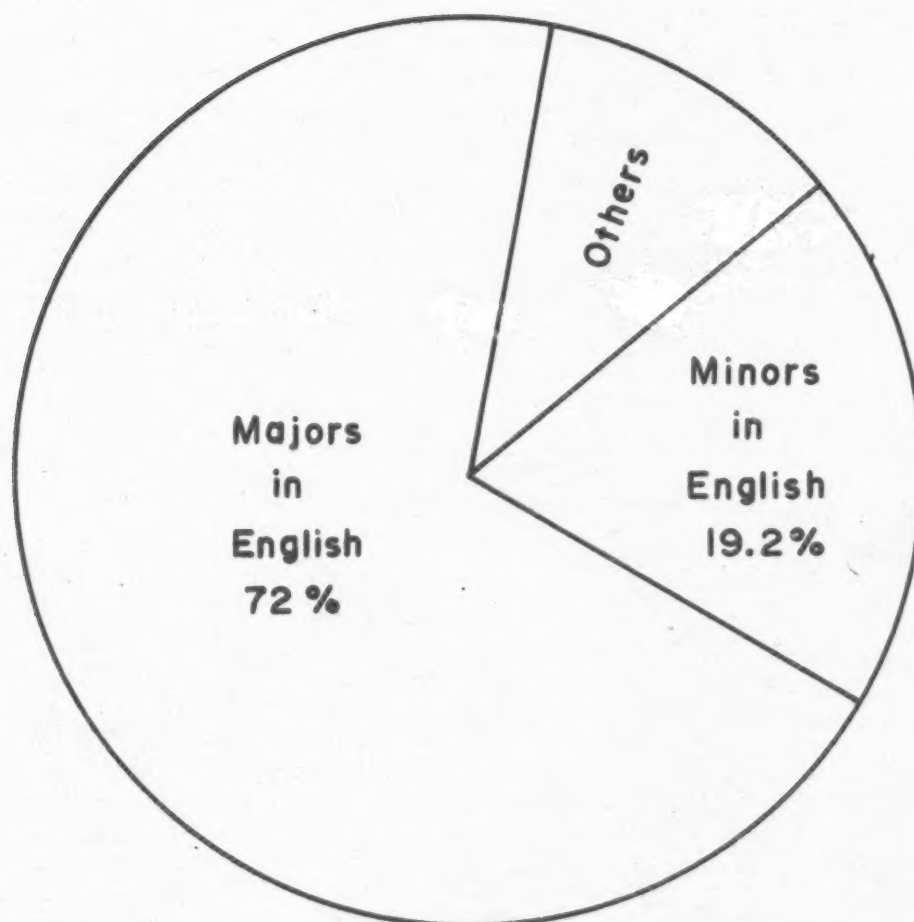
teachers in the schools surveyed by the NCTE reported English minors, 19.2 percent of the teachers in the Study did so. Even when only the first minor listed is used, this figure only drops to 18 percent. This seems to indicate that there are fewer teachers in the present Study with neither a major or minor in English as compared to the national sample. That is, the explanation of the comparable figures on English minors seems to lie in the greater likelihood that a teacher in the present Study who has some other major than English would have a minor in English than would be the case in the general population of secondary English teachers. Many of the teachers in this Study reported minors in fields not directly related to the teaching of English. More than 20 percent reported a minor in education and 23.6 percent reported a minor in a modern foreign language. The project staff was also curious about the number of teachers who reported a minor in

Table 15

Undergraduate Minors Reported by Teachers
(Percentage of teachers)

	Study (n = 1,331)	NCTE Survey (n = 8,925)
<u>English</u>	19.2	22.6
<u>Fields Related</u>	<u>18.4</u>	<u>14.5</u>
Language Arts Combination	3.5	5.1
Speech	8.9	6.5
Drama, Theatre	3.1	1.7
Journalism	2.9	1.2
<u>Unrelated Fields</u>	<u>96.4</u>	<u>62.9</u>
Education	20.4	15.2
Other Subjects	76.0	47.7

Undergraduate Majors Reported by Teachers



history since the area can be so useful to the English teacher. Almost 25 percent of the teachers listed history as a minor. This was not one of the designated categories, but it was written in under "Other." It seems safe to assume, therefore, that this is a conservative estimate of the true case. Probably more than 25 percent of the teachers actually have minors in history.

Whether compared to the more representative sample studied by the NCTE or considered in isolation, the level of preparation among the teachers in this survey is impressive. Most of them have at least an undergraduate major in English and apparently more than half have acquired a Master's degree whether in English or some other area of specialization related to English or teaching in general. Since more than three-fourths of these teachers completed their undergraduate work in a university or liberal arts college, it seems likely that their subject matter emphasis has been fairly heavy. Of course one may also infer that this emphasis has been predominately in the area of literature. As demonstrated in The National Interest and the Teaching of English,² there is a poverty of programs in language and composition in colleges of all types.

The teachers in this survey also appear well equipped to bring to their teaching information from many relevant areas. The numbers of teachers prepared in modern languages and history are particularly impressive because of the importance to the teacher of English in being able to contrast his own tongue with another, because of the high degree of overlap between the literature of particular languages, and because of the stress sometimes placed on studying the social, economic and political forces of a particular period and the literature which that period produced. Unfortunately, this

²Committee on National Interest, The National Interest and the Teaching of English, pp. 60-75.

same broad background suggests that these teachers may at any time be called upon to divide their time between the teaching of English and some other discipline. There is also evidence that these teachers have had considerable specialized training in areas more closely related to the discipline of English. Many of the teachers have at least a minor in speech, drama, journalism, reading, or language arts. This is particularly encouraging in light of the infrequency with which some of these areas are offered as electives or taken by students. There is at least the potential that teachers could treat these areas with some competence in the required English courses.

Selection of Teachers

The adoption of tenure regulations to protect teachers has resulted in a number of basic improvements in the overall conditions of teaching, but it also makes imperative the careful initial screening of prospective teachers. A school system must provide the means for the successful selection of teachers who possess a high degree of subject matter and methodological competence and the capacity to complement the efforts of the existing department. In recognition of the importance of such a carefully constructed system, the present Study surveyed the selection procedures existing in the schools participating in the Study. Two primary sources of information were used in compiling the present description: the Department Head Interview (Instrument No. 7) and the Principal's Interview (Instrument No. 6).

Most of the schools in this Study are part of multiple school systems, and, in general, the central offices play a major role in the recruiting, interviewing, and selecting of teachers for these high schools. Seventy-two

of the 106 reporting schools indicated the existence of a central office which carries some measure of responsibility in the decision process. In thirty-five of these schools this responsibility was primary; that is, no one within the school had the final voice in the decision process. Only eighteen of these thirty-five schools indicated any involvement in teacher selection, leaving 17 percent of the schools without first hand knowledge of the people with whom they will have to work in the future, and no direct means of controlling the composition of their faculties. Even though someone within the school usually has at least a small voice in teacher selection, it is quite often not the department chairman. Fifty-seven percent of the chairmen interviewed indicated that while there might be some theoretical mechanism for influencing the administrative decision, they had no practical effect on the final decision to hire.

In other words, it is apparent that recruiting, interviewing, rating, and hiring of teachers in most of these schools is not presently under the practical control of either the principal or department chairman and when some measure of control does exist within the school, the department chairman tends to play a very minor role in selection. Of those cases where control of teacher selection lies within the school, only 17 percent of the department chairmen were involved in the process.

Many reasons are advanced for centralizing personnel selection. A thorough job of recruiting is expensive and can often be accomplished at lower cost to the school district if a few people travel for the entire system. In the large multiple school district, some assignments are more attractive than others and administrators worry lest these schools tend to acquire the best of the available teachers. Assignment is thus made "impartially" by the central office. A subject matter specialist working

in the central office is frequently better qualified to pass on the competence of prospective teachers than the high school principal. All of these reasons are valid to some extent, yet none of them justifies the wholesale exclusion of principals and department chairmen from the decision process. To assume that any teacher of English, however carefully selected by central personnel officials, can teach any class in English and fit any faculty need, is to assume greater standardization in teaching than exists anywhere in the country.

Observers visiting schools in large multiple school districts frequently noted the feeling of impotence among principals and department chairmen faced with central control of elements vital to the excellence of the school. Wherever this feeling was encountered, it was accompanied by virtually absolute central control of teacher selection and a generally poor quality school. These are not inherent characteristics of large systems. In some of the better multiple school districts observed, principals and chairmen were formally and effectively involved in all stages of teacher selection. Department chairmen were required to submit requests for teachers that described in detail the area of specialization needed. This might extend to a request for someone experienced in a particular method. Often membership on the recruiting team rotated among principals and in a few cases among department chairmen. Before teachers were assigned to a school from the central pool, they were interviewed and rated by principals and department chairmen.

Even when no formal system for the delegation of this authority existed in multiple districts, the strongest principals and chairmen found ways to accomplish the same ends. More than one principal in large districts reported to project observers that he simply ignored the accepted

procedure for obtaining new teachers. He recruited teachers for his school and then manipulated procedures in the central office so that the teacher would be hired for and assigned to his school. Indeed, in a few unusual cases in city schools, principals reported that good inexperienced teachers would only accept positions after visiting the school and observing its special merits. Some chairmen, also, have acquired such respect within their district that they are able to obtain superior teachers out of all proportion to the quality of the available teacher pool. The effectiveness of such chairmen in recruiting and retaining teachers accounts in some measure for the excellence of their faculties. In single school districts some strong English chairmen are consulted by the principal on the hiring of English teachers when this practice does not commonly extend to other departments. Conversely, weak English chairmen were encountered who were not consulted to the degree that other chairmen were involved in interviewing and rating. In other words, the strong principal and chairman can and often do circumvent established inadequate procedures for the selection of teachers.

A study of these schools has convinced the project staff that the involvement of the principal and especially the department chairman in the final selection of teachers is essential to the establishment of a superior English department. The complex modern English curriculum requires specialized knowledge and skills. Not every English teacher is effective in large group lectures; nor is every teacher comfortable in teaching reading or in directing the work of slow learners. Teaching teams have disintegrated when a teacher with needed special skills cannot be found within the school. Electives have had to be cancelled because no system existed for specifying the area of specialization needed in a replacement teacher. Excellent English programs have deteriorated because a core of excellent teachers have moved on and been

replaced by mediocre teachers from the central pool. Some weaker schools were included in the National Study largely as a result of reputations acquired many years earlier. Outstanding teachers of English had moved on and had not been replaced; the reputation of the schools had not caught up with shifts in personnel. In many of these cases, no effective procedure existed within the school for influencing decisions concerning the selection of teachers.

Many of the schools in this Study cooperated with local college programs involving student teaching. Such programs provide unusual opportunity to observe and evaluate beginning teachers over a sustained period of time. The system that does not involve people from the school in the teacher selection process loses the opportunity to identify new teachers who have the characteristics necessary to building and maintaining a superior department. It is not possible for the central personnel office to provide the thorough observation of practice teachers that can occur within the school.

Strong schools have strong administrators and strong English chairmen. Such individuals, acquainted with the schools, its students and its program, will be far more successful in interpreting a possible position to a prospective teacher than someone from the central personnel office. Procedures which exclude school personnel from recruiting, interviewing, and evaluating new teachers rules out many opportunities to locate teachers who are most likely to complement the efforts to build and maintain the quality of a program.

Continuing Education of the Teachers of English

Teachers of English in these specially selected schools not only are well qualified initially but they continue their education. Forty-three

percent have earned a degree since beginning to teach and, because of the high level of initial preparation, only 7.3 percent of these teachers have had to concentrate their efforts on the Bachelor's degree (Table 16).

The number of teachers having earned some advanced degree since beginning to teach is particularly surprising since 24.5 percent of the teachers surveyed had been teaching less than two years. However, fully 36.5 percent of the teachers have acquired at least a Master's degree since beginning full time teaching. Inasmuch as 14 percent had earned this degree prior to teaching (Table 1), more than 50 percent of the teachers of English in the schools had achieved at least a Master's degree. This compares with a national figure for all secondary school teachers of 35.3 percent.³

Table 16

Degrees Earned Since Beginning Full Time Teaching

Degree	Percentage of 1,331 Teachers
No Degree	56.5
B.A. or B.S.	7.3
M.A. or M.S.	29.1
M. Ed.	6.2
MAT	1.2
Ph.D.	0.6
Ed.D.	0.5
Special Credential	6.6

More than 40 percent of the teachers of English had completed a college English course in the last two years excluding undergraduate work.

³ National Education Association, Research Division, Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1963. Research Report 1963-R4 (Washington, D. C.: The Association, May, 1963).

Thirty-seven percent had completed a college level education course in the last two years. Table 17 presents the data. Nor has advanced training been restricted to formal courses. Forty-three percent of the teachers also reported that they had taken part in a voluntary English workshop in the previous two years and 70.8 percent had conferred with an English specialist in that space of time. In other ways, however, the emerging picture is not a particularly happy one. While only 14.9 percent of the teachers surveyed have never completed a college level course since graduation, it has been more than ten years since many of them have taken such a course. All together, 40 percent of the teachers have not taken a college level English course in the last five years. The percentage of teachers disinterested in such studies is only slightly less than the percentage nationally. These figures are somewhat surprising in light of the frequent school board and credential requirements insisting on a program of continued education to

Table 17

Length of Time Since Completing College Courses
(Percentage of Teachers Responding)

Time Since Completing a
College English Course:

	Less Than One Year	1 Year	2 Years	3-5 Years	5-10 Years	More Than Ten	Never
Study (n = 1,331)	23.4	9.0	11.3	14.7	11.7	15.0	14.9
NCTE Survey (n = 7,495)	24.0	8.8	11.8	14.1	10.9	13.4	17.0

Time Since Completing a
College Education Course:

Study (n = 1,331)	19.8	7.5	9.8	16.5	13.8	15.9	16.7
NCTE Survey (n = 7,495)	25.9	9.4	12.9	14.5	11.6	11.1	14.6

retain certification. Even with this incentive, only 23.4 percent of all teachers in the Study report having taken English courses in the past year. A similar portrait emerges with respect to college education courses. Almost 17 percent have never taken such a course since graduating and for 46 percent, it has been at least five years since taking such a course, if ever. Again, only 19.8 percent report having taken an education course in the past year.

In light of the educational programs observed in the schools, it is interesting to note the kinds of college courses teachers take or would prefer to take. The overwhelming majority of classes observed in the schools dealt with literature and comparatively little work was observed in language or composition (See Chapter III). Paralleling this emphasis, 59.8 percent of the teachers have taken one or more literature courses since beginning to teach. Only 25.1 percent have taken one or more courses in composition, and only 34.2 percent have taken a course in language. As a further index of the stress placed on literature, teachers in this Study consistently rated literature courses high on a scale of potential value and interest (Table 18). This, in spite of the fact that teachers reported to project observers that they feel most proficient in the teaching of literature and most deficient in the teaching of composition and language. But, as Table 19 indicates, the overwhelming number of teachers in these schools, like all teachers nationally, claim to be interested in all courses. In contrast to the general sampling of teachers in the NCTE study, the teachers in these schools are more interested in literature than in composition or methods of teaching.

Further, the teachers in the Study actually tend to take more than one course in literature beyond the undergraduate level but not in language

Table 18

**College Courses Reported of Interest and Value by Teachers
(Percent of Teachers Responding)**

Type of Course	Percent Indicating Great Interest	Percent Indicating Some Interest	Percent Indicating Little Interest	Percent Indicating No Interest	No Response
Literature Surveys	24.4	40.2	21.5	9.7	4.2
Literature of Periods	46.4	39.1	8.2	2.5	3.8
Literary Genre Courses	29.6	42.7	16.1	4.8	6.8
Literary Criticism	51.3	33.4	8.9	2.6	3.8
Literature of Adolescents	36.9	35.1	15.9	8.4	3.7
Close Study of Literature	47.7	35.7	9.9	6.3	0.4
Intermediate or Advanced Composition	50.7	31.3	9.8	4.6	3.6
Speech or Drama	24.9	39.8	23.0	7.7	5.3
History of the Language	29.3	37.9	19.8	7.7	5.3
Traditional Grammar	11.9	27.3	29.4	25.7	5.7
Structural or Generative Grammar	31.2	39.6	15.1	8.8	5.3
Teaching of Reading	35.8	33.4	16.2	9.6	5.0
Practical Methods of Teaching English	40.9	30.4	14.2	9.5	5.0
Advanced Studies in Curriculum	35.5	33.1	15.6	10.8	5.0

Table 19

Rank Order of 10 Courses Rated
of Greatest Interest and Value by Teachers

Course	Study (n = 1,331)		NCTE Survey (n = 8,925)	
	Rank	Percentage	Rank	Percentage
Literature of Particular Periods	1	85.5	4.5	84.5
Literary Criticism	2	84.7	7	81.8
Close Studies of Single Works and Authors	3	83.4	9	77.8
Intermediate or Advanced Composition	4	82.0	1	89.9
Literary Genre	5	72.3	3	84.9
Literature for Adolescents	6	72.0	4.5	84.5
Practical Methods	7	71.3	2	89.4
Structural or Generative Grammar	8	70.8	8	81.8
Teaching of Reading	9	69.2	6	83.6
Advanced Studies in Curriculum	10	68.6	10	76.3

and composition. Forty-two percent of the teachers reported taking more than one course in literature, but only 14.9 percent reported more than one course in language and only 6.1 percent took more than one graduate course in composition.

It is apparent that the teachers surveyed have continued their formal education after beginning to teach. Ample evidence of this lies in the number acquiring advanced degrees and the number attending summer school. Twenty-two percent of the teachers listed "attending summer school" as their most typical activity. These figures speak well for the English teacher's concern with his own academic growth. But much of this is a highly individual effort and schools receive maximum benefit from the teacher's advanced training only as they place teachers relevant to the teacher's choice of

area of specialization. Placement of this sort does not always meet the needs of the department. The English teachers surveyed have demonstrated a strong attraction toward literature classes. But an English department may be in need of specialists in language, composition, or curriculum development. It seems to be the rare department in which a chairman finds this sort of advanced proficiency on the staff. Therefore, much of the responsibility for building a pool of available talent that covers all areas of English falls on the school and particularly on those in charge of the English program. It becomes the function of the administration at some level to maintain an up-to-date survey of the composite skills of the department and, where necessary, to provide for mass and/or individual training programs for the faculty.

The project staff asked department chairmen to rank various techniques for providing for retraining of the faculty according to the frequency of their use. By far the most frequently used method for providing such continuing education is the department meeting. The use of such meetings for this purpose was mentioned almost twice as frequently as conferences with teachers or use of summer courses. Moreover, department meetings, teacher-chairman conferences, and summer courses accounted for almost 60 percent of all methods of providing for continuing education. Other frequently used approaches are special workshops and attendance at professional meetings. According to the chairmen, demonstration teaching, institutes, intervisitation, and outside consultants are very rarely used.

The department meeting, if carefully structured, is capable of providing an organized program for extending teachers' knowledge about trends in the various disciplines of English; for example, in the teaching of language or in literary criticism. It is an even more natural vehicle for

demonstrating their use. Because it is potentially so useful, its widespread use is encouraging. However, a substantial number of chairmen lack adequate time to prepare for such sessions. Although they reported that "department meetings" were frequently used in providing continued education for the English faculty, many chairmen could not recall any topic of substance which had been explored in such meetings. It seems fair to infer that when chairmen could not list a single topic which could be construed as treating method or content in a formal way, the English department meetings in that school are seldom in actual practice devoted to formal attempts at inservice education. Mention of "discussion of approaches to teaching the novel," "reports on summer workshops," or "demonstration grading of a set of compositions" may indicate at least a minimal program of inservice education through the department meeting. Mention of meetings devoted only to "the need for more compositions" or "decisions on what books will be taught at what levels this year" (as well as the more obvious administrative topics) combined with failure to mention more formal training topics seems to offer some evidence that the meetings were not typically devoted to continued education of the faculty. Using these criteria in evaluating transcripts of 108 usable interviews, the staff estimated that some 62, or 58 percent of the chairmen, do not actually use the department meeting as an inservice training device. Occasional visits by project observers to regular meetings of the English faculties only substantiated this impression. Too many such sessions are haphazard, unplanned, and devoted only to routine matters which might better be handled through mimeographed forms or departmental newsletters.

Clearly, also, several unique and valuable approaches to continuing education are not being used to any great extent. Demonstration teaching,

for example, is almost never used, and yet it can be one of the more palatable means of introducing new teaching ideas to a faculty. In a sense, the experienced, high quality teacher is justified in his reluctance to take part in formal, college level methods courses. The typical methods course, even in subject areas, must of necessity be very general. If a teacher has been at all deliberate in his own development, much that is treated in the usual methods course has already been examined and accepted or rejected. Demonstration teaching within the school provides a means of professional communication of methods and techniques with reference to specific materials and content immediately relevant to the teacher's problems, and it provides them in a sufficiently detailed format for critical evaluation. Demonstration teaching by members of the faculty or by acknowledged masters in particular areas therefore has the potential of being an economical approach to the problem of maintaining a fresh approach to the teaching of English. In a similar fashion "meetings with outside consultants" can provide the kind of specific assistance that is of great value to the teacher without the time-consuming demands of a formal, college course. It is unfortunate that such approaches are not more frequently introduced in programs of continuing education.

Much of the responsibility of providing for the continuing education of English teachers rests within a department of English. The department chairman, who knows the program, the teachers, and the students, is in an unusually strong position to organize inservice activities which may have a direct effect on the classroom. In many of the stronger schools such provisions are being made, sometimes by the school in relation to the district. In such places as Portland, Oregon; Tucson, Arizona; and Abington, Pennsylvania, for example, carefully structured programs have been developed

for providing consultant service to English departments. Some department chairmen do a masterful job of regularly introducing teachers to new materials and techniques. A very few carefully planned demonstration teaching sessions were also observed. But most project observers were alarmed that so many school systems and English departments studied in this survey seem to have adopted an unstructured approach to the teacher's individual advancement in subject matter competence. In the typical situation, teachers are required to acquire a certain number of graduate credits over a specified period of time. In the most controlled situations teachers must acquire these credits on a regular, semi-continuing basis--X number of credits every five years or so. On rare occasion, the distribution of these credits between education and English courses is also controlled. To be sure, such an unstructured approach is more easily administered and represents a high degree of respect for the teacher's professionalism. But the negative results are also clear. As the data presented earlier in this chapter indicate, the English teacher left to his own devices is almost certain to take another course in literature. Such courses have perhaps the most immediate transfer value to the classroom and are desirable in that they encourage the continued introduction into the classroom of new insights and fresh teacher material. But the high school curriculum is not exclusively based on literature. Teachers of English hasten to acknowledge the humility with which they approach the teaching of language and composition. The instruction in language and composition, as well as the writing assignments and evaluations of compositions sampled by the observers, tend to justify this humility. Clearly, the English programs surveyed in this study could benefit by intensive training of teachers in language and composition. One hesitates to suggest that yet another system of regulations be imposed upon

the already overly-restricted teacher. Yet it is clear that means need to be provided which will guarantee the availability of teachers competent in the content they are expected to teach and capable of the flexibility necessary to the improvement of the curriculum.

The schools in the Study do provide far greater incentives for individual teachers to continue their education than do most schools nationally. Data in Table 20 indicate, for example, that 76 percent of schools in the Study frequently encourage continuing education through salary incentives, compared with the 49.9 percent reported in the national NCTE survey. More than one-third of the Study schools also encourage the organization of local extension courses, 48.6 percent "frequently" or "sometimes" grant sabbatical leave to teachers, 24 percent will on occasion underwrite tuition and fees for outside courses, 21.6 percent at least "sometimes" pay stipends for summer study, and 20.7 percent occasionally or frequently release teachers for inservice work. So striking are the differences in policies adopted by the Study schools over those in the national NCTE sampling that it appears that the adoption of rather extensive programs of incentives to encourage inservice education is one of the unique characteristics of schools with strong English programs. Not only are the teachers better prepared initially than are teachers in unselected schools, but they receive more encouragement to continue their education. As the reports from staff observers indicate, however, too few of these programs seem sufficiently well organized in relation to the demands of the subject.

The teachers in the schools studied also utilize other opportunities for inservice education. Some 31.3 percent report that they have received grants or fellowships to permit advanced study (Table 21). This percentage is more than three times larger than the 9.5 percent responding to a

Table 20

Frequency of Incentives to Continuing Education Reported by Teachers
(Percentage of teachers responding)

Incentive	Study (n = 1,331)					NCTE Survey (n = 7,417)				
	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	No Response	Frequently	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	
Salary Increments	76.0	13.2	2.0	4.7	4.1	49.9	13.9	5.7	30.5	
Released Time	4.7	16.0	19.5	50.6	9.2	1.4	6.9	15.4	76.3	
Sabbatical Leave	17.5	31.1	15.0	28.0	8.4	6.9	15.7	18.8	58.6	
Local Extension Courses	37.0	26.8	11.1	17.4	7.7	26.9	28.6	14.6	29.9	
Underwriting of Tuition and Fees	10.4	13.6	10.6	55.8	9.6	10.3	8.5	9.2	72.0	
Stipends for Summer Study	8.3	13.3	12.5	55.1	10.8	2.0	10.3	9.5	78.2	

similar question in the NCTE sampling of all English teachers nationally. The fact that the major difference in the two percentage figures is attributable to the greater number of "miscellaneous grants" (perhaps from local districts?) and "locally sponsored grants" (20 percent contrasted with 4.9 percent) suggests the effectiveness of school and community centered programs. Because the data on this question were collected during the academic year of 1964-1965, they do not reveal the impact of the National Defense Education Act summer institute and teaching fellowship programs which provided opportunities for grants and fellowships throughout the nation.

Table 21

Grants and Fellowships Reported by Teachers
(Percentage of teachers responding)

Rank Order in Study	Type of Grant	Study (n = 1,331)	NCTE Survey (n = 7,417)
1	Miscellaneous Grants	10.0+	3.7
2	Locally Sponsored Grants	10.0	1.2
3	Grants from Universities	5.4	1.9
4	Stipends from Commission on English, College Entrance Examination Board	2.6	1.5
5	John Hay Fellowships	2.1	0.3
6	State Sponsored Stipends	1.2	0.9
	Total Receiving Grants of Any Kind	31.3	9.5

Clearly, however, many teachers in Study schools have opportunities and utilize the opportunities. Some 51.2 percent report having participated

voluntarily in an English workshop during the preceding five years, about the same number as nationally (Table 22).

A well-educated staff and a staff that strives to continue its education seems to be characteristic of schools with stronger English programs. Although observers were critical of the opportunities for staff development frequently misused or overlooked, the evidence available suggests that a substantial number of teachers and schools in the Study are striving for self-improvement. In all probability the quality of the teaching faculty and its involvement in educational activities is an essential corollary of good teaching. Almost certainly, however, the very involvement of teachers on these faculties with college and university specialists in the teaching of English has directed attention to these schools. The very selection of some English programs in the Study as programs "with superior reputation in English" may have been attributable to the fact that teachers were known and respected by college instructors.

Professional Activities of the Teachers

The project staff was interested in the evidence of professionalism among the English teachers in the school programs noted for excellence in English. It seemed reasonable to suppose that much of the excellence achieved by a program must result from considerable self evaluation and improvement on the part of individual teachers, a professional approach to the task of teaching. It was expected that the English teachers in these better programs would be more current in their knowledge of the profession, more active in the professional organizations, do more independent professional reading, publish more, and be more capable of objective evaluation of their own teaching efforts. The resulting composite which may be called the professionalism of the teachers in this Study is very favorable. To

take a very subjective point of view first, the cooperation of the more than fifteen hundred teachers participating in this Study was very gratifying, particularly in view of the demands made upon their already severely over-subscribed time. Returns on long, complex questionnaires ran well into the 80 percent range. With few exceptions observers were well received in schools and, if anything, were deluged with more information than they could possibly summarize. They were welcomed in classrooms and most teachers seemed anxious to have an independent evaluation of what was observed. Such an independent assessment, of course, was not within the scope of the observers' task. Again, cooperation in long interviews that took away from precious preparation time and longer meetings scheduled at the end of the school day were well attended. Such cooperation seems indicative of a healthy professionalism among teachers.

Several areas that reflect the English teacher's professional attitude have been reported earlier in this chapter. The large numbers who have continued their formal training beyond state and local requirements is certainly an impressive expression of professional concern with subject matter competence. The lack of continuing education in certain areas of the discipline however, suggests that most of the teachers in the Study do not apply the same criteria of professional competence to, say, literature and composition. The comments of teachers during interviews also reflect a highly developed capacity for self evaluation and a desire to improve their ability to teach.

A serious attempt was made by the project staff to gather information that would directly reflect professional commitment: data on membership in professional organizations, degree of participation in these professional organizations, amount of professional writing done by the teachers, amount

of professional reading done by teachers, and data on the way they spend their time outside the school day. Although somewhat more mixed than other indications of professional commitment, these figures reflect a generally high level of professionalism among the English teachers in this survey.

Surprisingly, the teachers in these schools do not differ markedly from average teachers in schools throughout the country in their participation in professional meetings, particularly at the local, regional, or state levels. Indeed, as Table 22 indicates, a slightly smaller percentage

Table 22

Percentage of Teachers Participating
Recently in Selected Professional Activities

Meeting in Which Teachers Have Participated Within One Year	Study (n = 1,331)	NCTE Survey (n = 7,417)
Local or Regional Meetings of Teachers of English	54.7	63.7
State Meeting of Teachers of English	33.2	37.8
National Meeting of Teachers of English	8.4	8.2
Voluntary English Workshop	28.8	41.2

of such teachers reported participation in such meetings during the year immediately preceding the Study. The percentages of teachers who report "never" or "rarely" participating in selected professional activity, presented in Table 23, does not depart from the national average indicated in the NCTE sampling. About 25 percent of the teachers do not participate in local or regional English meetings, almost 50 percent do not participate in state meetings (a few states do not have English associations), and three-quarters "never" or "rarely" take part in national meetings. More

Table 23

Percentage of Teachers Who Rarely or
Never Participate in Professional Activity

Meeting in Which Teachers Rarely or Never Participate	Study (n = 1,331)	NCTE Survey (n = 7,417)
Local or Regional Meetings of Teachers of English	24.6	25.3
State Meeting of Teachers of English	45.6	50.7
National Meeting of Teachers of English	74.6	83.6
Voluntary English Workshop	44.9	44.6

than half had participated within the previous year in local or regional meetings and one-third in state meetings, percentages slightly below those reported nationally. The lack of any clear distinction in such participation between these teachers and teachers nationally is somewhat surprising in view of the superior preparation of teachers in the Study and their obvious interest in subject matter concerns.

Table 24

Membership in Professional Associations
(Percentage of teachers responding)

	NCTE	State English	Regional English	Local English	N.E.A.	State Educational Association	Regional Educational Association	A.F.T.	Misc.
Study (n = 1,331)	52.4	45.9	21.5	37.2	59.2	73.1	59.2	5.2	9.3
NCTE Survey (n = 7,417)	32.6	23.5	7.8	16.5	No Data	58.5	No Data	No Data	No Data

When asked to specify the length of time since engaging in various professional activities (Table 25), teachers in the schools visited indicated

that their pattern of involvement did not differ markedly from that of English teachers nationally. Some 21.7 percent had not participated in local or regional meetings during the preceding ten years contrasted with 23.6 percent nationally; 39 percent had not attended a state meeting compared with 48.8 percent; 37.8 percent had not attended a voluntary English workshop in contrast with 43.3 percent; and 16.5 percent had not conferred with an English specialist in comparison with 20.8 percent in the NCTE survey. The teachers in the Study schools have participated slightly more extensively in national English meetings, with about one-third reporting such attendance during the preceding decade compared with one-fifth of English teachers nationally.

The difference in professional involvement becomes even more obvious in comparing membership in associations and professional reading. More than half of all teachers in this Study are members of the National Council of Teachers of English; less than a third of English teachers nationally reported such membership in the NCTE survey (Table 24). Twice as many teachers in these schools belong to state, local, and regional English associations, and a substantially larger percentage also have joined the National Educational Association. All but a small group of teachers in the Study schools regularly read the English Journal (some 83.5 percent), whereas only half this percentage (44.8 percent) report reading the Journal in the national sampling (Table 26). Moreover, almost one-third of the teachers (30.2 percent) regularly read College English, whereas not more than one-twentieth of the teachers were reported to be so inclined in the national survey. If the teachers in these strong English programs do not attend professional meetings more regularly than their colleagues elsewhere, they do at least maintain a much greater familiarity with developments

reported in professional magazines. A substantial number of the teachers contribute to professional journals and professional meetings as well. Nine percent of the teachers in the Study schools admitted writing professional articles; 1.9 percent had written books; 29.4 percent had appeared on programs at professional meetings.

Table 26

National Professional Journals in English Teaching
to Which Teachers Subscribe

Rank Order	<u>Journal</u>	Percentage Study (n = 1,331)	Percentage NCTE Survey (n = 7,417)
1	<u>English Journal</u>	83.5	44.8
2	<u>College English</u>	30.2	5.4
3	<u>Elementary English</u>	2.1	2.6
4	<u>College Composition & Communication</u>	9.8	1.7
5	<u>Reading Teacher</u>	5.0	1.5
6	<u>Speech Teacher</u>	5.6	1.1
7	<u>American Speech</u>	3.8	
	Other	28.8	

Nor is the continuing education of teachers in these schools limited to organized professional activity. Interested in the activities in which the teachers in these schools engaged during non-teaching hours, the project staff asked the 1,331 teachers to estimate the number of hours per week and per month devoted to outside personal and cultural activities. As Tables 27 and 28 indicate, the average teachers in the Study find little time during the school year for professional activities other than reading. For 75 percent of the teachers, attendance at lectures, viewing motion pictures,

watching television, and visiting museums is a relatively rare activity. The absence of outside employment is also a characteristic of most teachers in the group, not surprising perhaps in view of the fact that 72.2 percent are women, many are married, and their salaries may represent supplementary family income.

Table 27
Time Spent by Teachers Each Week on Non-Teaching Activities
(n = 1,331)

	Total Median Hours	Q ₁	Q ₃
Taking College Courses*	0	0	0
Reading Books and Periodicals	7-9	4-6	10-12
Listening to Music	4-6	1-3	7-9
Watching Television	4-6	1-3	7-9
Part-time Employment	0	0	0

*785 of 1,331 spend average of 1-3 hours per week on college courses.

Table 28
Number of Hours per Month Spent on Cultural Activities
(n = 1,331)

Rank	Activities	Total Median Hours	Q ₁	Q ₃
1	Attending movies or theatre	3	1 or less	4
2	Attending lectures or discussions	2	1 or less	3
3	Writing for publication	1 or less	---	7
4	Visiting museums	1 or less	---	7
5	Other professional activities	1 or less	1 or less	3

As a group, also, the teachers seem widely traveled. Virtually all have traveled more than 500 miles from where they are teaching, some 69.7 percent in the previous year (Table 29). Three-quarters of the teachers have visited either Canada or Mexico, the data indicating that trips may be even more frequent than travel across the United States which two-thirds of the teachers report. Regrettably, perhaps, only 26.2 percent of these teachers report having traveled to Great Britain and only a slightly higher percentage to other countries.

Table 29

Length of Time Since Traveling to Various Places
(n = 1,331)

Percentage of Teachers Traveling

Recency of Travel	More Than 500 Miles	Across the United States	To Canada or Mexico	To Great Britain	Abroad exclusive of Great Britain
Less than 1 Year	69.7	15.1	18.3	3.5	5.5
1 Year	8.4	5.3	5.2	1.8	2.3
2 Years	7.2	7.4	7.7	2.6	3.0
3-5 Years	6.2	10.4	13.8	6.2	6.9
5-10 Years	3.6	12.9	15.2	5.6	7.1
More than 10 Years	2.1	12.6	12.4	6.5	9.9
Never	0.7	33.8	24.1	69.3	60.8
No Response	2.1	0.5	3.3	4.5	4.5

Finally, the staff was interested in the extent to which these teachers participate in improving the general level of the profession by publishing and by taking part in programs at professional meetings. Here the figures are not entirely satisfactory. Only 1.9 percent of the teachers have

published books and only 9 percent have published articles in the professional journals. This is particularly distressing since these represent some of the best trained teachers and those with the greatest opportunities to investigate new approaches to the teaching of English. If teachers with such strong preparation do not publish, the spread of information aimed at improving instruction throughout the profession must be severely limited. While one would not expect a great many of these teachers to publish books (the demands on their time are too great for this large a commitment), it certainly seems reasonable to expect them to publish occasionally in the journals. There is evidence that these teachers do participate in programs at professional meetings however; 29.4 percent report such activity. This seems to be a more acceptable level of participation, but by no means offsets the serious neglect of professional publication.

The data available on the continuing education of the 1,331 teachers in the Study schools indicate that as a group they seem to be more involved than most in developments in the profession. Initially well prepared for their teaching responsibilities, they join most professional associations available even though their active participation is not as great as would be expected. For the most part their continuing source of contact with their profession is through reading journals, although a small group regularly enrolls in extension and college courses and almost one-third have received stipends to support summer or sabbatical study. Reasonably widely traveled in North America, if not in other countries, the teachers are limited in time and perhaps opportunity to engage in professional and cultural activities other than reading. The findings suggest the importance to school programs of making available particularly valuable professional books and journals, no less than organized programs involving released time, sabbatical and

stipend incentives, and carefully structured meetings and workshops to make possible the continuing education of teachers. Not the least strength of the English programs in this Study may result from the conditions in these schools designed to insure continuing education. While this support cannot account for all of the advanced education these teachers have taken, it may play an important role. Whatever the cause, more of these teachers have continued their education than have teachers nationally and many have completed their graduate work through the Master's degree.

Teaching Conditions

The conditions under which English is taught in the 116 schools selected for having strong English programs appear somewhat more conducive to good teaching than those reported in other national studies. However, conditions vary so greatly that the distinctions are not always sharp and clearly defined.

The class load among teachers in the Study resembles the load of English teachers nationally, as reported by NCTE. As Table 30 indicates, the largest percentage of teachers report meeting five classes a day. However, some rather interesting differences do appear between schools selected in this Study and unselected schools. Only one percent of the teachers surveyed in the present Study taught six classes a day while slightly more than six percent of teachers nationally have this heavy a load.⁴ The schools in this Study seem somewhat more homogeneous with respect to this variable than in what may be taken to be the population of high school English programs. More than one-third of the teachers meet only four classes daily. Schools in the current Study cluster very tightly around four and

⁴ Committee on National Interest, The National Interest and the Teaching of English, pp. 89-100.

Table 30

Number of Classes Taught Each Day
(n = 1,331)

Number of Classes		Percentage Reporting
1		1.2
2		2.7
3		5.2
4		31.9
5		55.4
6		3.2
No Response		0.4
Me	=	5 classes
Q ₁	=	4 classes
Q ₃	=	5 classes
Most Frequent Response		5 classes

five classes a day while in the NCTE sampling a somewhat greater portion occur at one, two, and three classes per day. While these differences are not great, they do seem to suggest some relation between selection procedure and class load. Quite possibly schools nationally involve more part-time teachers of English than do these schools.

Although the number of classes per day is about the same in this Study and that reported by the NCTE, this does not seem to be the case for number of pupils met daily (Table 31). Here the teachers in this Study report considerably fewer students per day than do teachers nationally. A greater portion of the Study teachers have fewer than 150 students. Some 84.2 percent

of the teachers in this Study have fewer than 150 students while only 74.1 percent of the teachers nationally had this light a load. This of course does not show any cause-effect relationship but rather suggests that schools selected for reputation in the teaching of English simply have smaller student loads per teacher. The average pupil load of teachers in the survey is 130, but more than 20 percent report loads of fewer than 100 students. In view of the absence of many small high schools from this Study, the results suggest that a number of these schools are making a determined effort to hold down class size.

Table 31

Number of Pupils Met Daily

	Fewer Than 100	101-125 Pupils	126-150 Pupils	151-175 Pupils	176-200 Pupils	Over 200 Pupils
Study (n = 1,331)	21.0	30.8	32.4	12.0	2.6	.3
NCTE Survey (n = 7,417)	19.4	24.2	30.5	17.0	6.2	2.5

It might be of interest to note the number of professional hours per week reported by the teachers in the present survey. These data appear in Table 32. The majority of teachers in the Study report spending somewhere between forty-one and sixty hours per week on professional responsibilities. This category accounts for 78.8 percent of the teachers surveyed. Some 48.4 percent of this teacher group reported spending between fifty-one and sixty hours per week on professional activities. This is about 38.2 percent of all the teachers surveyed. These hours are distributed among various teaching connected activities as shown in Table 31. Fully 50 percent of the teachers surveyed are teaching less than twenty hours per week. Assuming

one hour or less per class period, this amounts to four or fewer class periods a day, including all subjects taught. These figures compare with those obtained in the NCTE survey, although the interpretation is considerably different. In that study, 55 percent of the teachers surveyed taught four or fewer English classes a day.

Table 32
Professional Activities per Week Reported by Teachers
(n = 1,331)

Rank	Activity	Median Number Hours Reported	Q ₁	Q ₃
1	Teaching Classes	17-20 hours	13-16 hours	25-28 hours
2	Correcting Papers	9-12 hours	5-8 hours	13-16 hours
3	Preparing for Classes	5-8 hours	5-8 hours	9-12 hours
4	Conferring with Students	1-4 hours	1-4 hours	5-8 hours
5	Attending to Routines	1-4 hours	1-4 hours	5-8 hours
6	Advising Student Activities	less than 1 hour	less than 1 hour	1-4 hours
7	Attending Faculty Meetings	less than 1 hour	less than 1 hour	1-4 hours
	Other	less than 1 hour	less than 1 hour	1-4 hours

The other major categories occupying the teacher's time are correcting papers and preparing for classes. The larger portion of teachers spend twelve hours or less correcting papers and eight or less preparing for classes. These data suggest that if there is any validity to the teacher's contention that there is not time enough to do the job of teaching he would like to do, it is not because he is overworked but because he is overtaxed.

Work Load of the Average Teacher

Median Hours
Per Week

	TEACHING	17 - 20
	CORRECTING PAPERS	9 - 12
	PREPARING	5 - 8
	CONFERRING WITH STUDENTS	1 - 4
	ROUTINES	1 - 4
	ADVISING ON ACTIVITIES	less than 1 hour
	FACULTY MEETINGS	less than 1 hour

Surely an average of forty-one to fifty hours per week does not seem excessive for a professional person. Perhaps more teachers of English would do a superior job if the trivia associated with teaching were removed rather than if the work week were reduced. Although a number of assumptions have to be made, it can be argued that the data in Table 32 suggest the majority of teachers are actually spending forty or less hours a week on activities directly associated with their area of professional competence. The necessity of attending meetings, monitoring study halls, handling paper work and the other routines which occupy the school day may well leave him little inclination to investigate alternatives to a highly mechanical approach to teaching.

Individual interviews with 438 of the 1,331 teachers in the Study tend to substantiate the impression that it is not teaching load alone but general dissatisfaction with the conditions under which English is taught which most concerns those in these schools. An analysis of recorded interviews indicated little agreement on "the most disappointing aspect of teaching high school English." Table 33 summarizes the analysis of interview responses.

Obviously teachers of English are not disappointed in their salaries, nor do they pinpoint "teaching load" in any specific way. What concerns them most in the Study schools are the overall conditions under which they work and their inability to teach as effectively as they would like under these conditions. The data alone do not reveal the sense of frustration and harassment many teachers reported in their personal interviews. The resentment against "the administration," usually vaguely defined and not directed against the school principal as much as "the establishment," appears in individual comments: "It wears me down," "It gets harder and harder."

Table 33

**Most Disappointing Aspect of Teaching High School English
Mentioned by Teachers in Interviews
(n = 438)**

Rank Order	Type of Concern	Number of Teachers Mentioning
1	Administrative Problems (load, lack of sympathy, pupil grouping, pressure, clerical work, pressure to be creative)	60
2	The Slow Learner (the "deadbeats," "the clods," the terminals, the average)	47
3	The Slowness of Pupil Progress (the amount forgotten on exams, what they forget in the summer)	40
4	Lack of Interest of Students in English	35
5	Time (the difficulty of doing everything)	35
6.5	Paper Correction (reading and grading, "wearing down" of papers)	30
6.5	Inability to Know if You Are Successful	30
8	Difficulty of "Reaching" Students	27
9	Lack of Enthusiasm and Support (colleagues, administration, parents)	16
10	Isolation	5
11	Money	4
	Miscellaneous Items	54
	None	7

The impossible paper load of many teachers was mentioned again and again, and several admitted applying for positions as counselor or teacher of mathematics solely to escape this burden. It is important to realize that almost no teacher complained about load in terms of too many classes or too

many students; virtually all disappointments were stated in terms of the teacher's ability to complete the needed task--providing individual guidance, reading and returning papers, etc.

In addition to working conditions, the other major source of concern was the difficulty of coping with the slow learner and the alienated learner, who may be one and the same or not. Teachers recognize that they are not successful in teaching English to many of these students but they are not certain of what approach to attempt. A number of teachers also expressed concern about the lack of professional standards of colleagues.

Any interpretation of these complaints, of course, must recognize that 50 percent of the English teachers in these schools have Master's degrees, that most are well educated in English, that 85 percent read the English Journal, that those interviewed tend to be the more successful English teachers in the schools visited, according to department heads and principals (for they were selected on this basis), and that the average teacher works with a classload of 130 students per day. If such teachers are concerned about the conditions under which English is taught, what must morale be like in many other schools?

Conditions are far from ideal, then, even in the schools selected for their strong programs in English. But strong teachers have much resiliency. When asked in interview whether they would have taught English had they known at the point of beginning their careers "what you know now about the problems, compensations, restrictions, and rewards of the profession," 70 percent indicated that they would still become teachers of English. Only 10 percent answered that they would not, and 20 percent were undecided. Despite problems and disappointments, these carefully selected teachers retain their faith in the profession.

Indeed, paralleling the interview question concerning disappointments, teachers were also asked to identify their "most significant compensation for teaching English. The analysis of recorded interview responses indicates the strong satisfaction which most teachers find in their relations with students (Table 34). Clearly these teachers are "other directed." The

Table 34

Most Significant Compensation for Teaching English Reported
by Teachers in Interviews
(n = 438 teachers)

Rank Order	Classification of Compensation	Number Mentioning
1	The young people ("the students," "young people in general," "the faces of the children")	91
2	Seeing students "light up" (this metaphor is a common cliché apparently)	51
3	Seeing student progress	77
4	Helping adolescents "grapple" with ideas (and do other things with ideas--"struggle," "consider," "work with")	36
5	Students who return years later (their thanks, what they remember, etc.)	28
6	Helping the student "taste" literature (and do other things with literature)	27
7	Service, a "feeling of accomplishment"	26
8	Personal intellectual stimulation	17
9	Subject matter	16
10	Variety of teaching	12
11	Concern with ethics, values	11
12	Vacations	4
	None	2
	Miscellaneous	29

overwhelming number of comments deal with their pupils rather than themselves. They are, to be sure, incurable sentimentalists about their students, talking about the "light on student faces," "the mountain-top experience," "helping children live better," "lighting a fire in some students." Perhaps the most interesting result of this interview question is the absence in responses of much concern with subject matter, and particularly the absence of any mention of composition or grammar. But noteworthy, too, is the fact that these same teachers who expressed such concern with teaching conditions are concerned primarily with student welfare rather than themselves. They want better conditions not for themselves but so that they can teach more effectively.

Summary

A study of the conditions under which English is taught in these schools known to be achieving excellent results in English does not yield conclusive evidence that conditions are distinctly better than in the average schools throughout the country. Although the average pupil load per English teacher of 130 is somewhat lower than reported in national studies, although one-third of the teachers report teaching only four English classes daily, the modal assignment remains five classes. Moreover, interviews with teachers reveal rather extensive concern with details of classroom management, administrative reports, and lack of general interest in English studies on the part of both the administration and often the community.

What does appear distinctive in these selected schools is the quality of the teaching staff itself. The superior beginning preparation under which more than 80 percent of all teachers of English have majors in the subject is continued through both personal initiative and administrative encouragement. Far more than in the typical secondary school, these teachers

and join professional associations, read professional magazines, apply for and receive stipends and fellowships to continue their education in English. Indeed the differences seem so significant at times that they provide internal support for the selection of the 116 schools and support the contention that, as a group, these schools do seem representative of better English programs. Although project observers felt that many of the schools' efforts in inservice education needed more conscious direction in terms of specific subject and classroom needs, they were not unmindful of the attempts presently being made. Most clear of all distinctive characteristics of these selected teachers is their basic professional interest in the subject and in the students. As interviews with the teachers make clear, the sixty hours of work each week does not make the teacher feel overworked; rather it makes him feel overtaxed. Project observers estimated that almost one-third of this time may be devoted to routine activities not directly related to the teacher's area of competence. Were more of these demands assigned to paraprofessionals, clerks, and other teacher aids, the teachers might find the demands of paper correction, preparation, and professional growth far more possible than at present.

CHAPTER III

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF PROGRAMS AND SCHOOLS

There can be no argument that the characteristics common to large numbers of schools are of greater significance than their variations (which are carefully described elsewhere in the report). This chapter concerns these general characteristics as they were described in the summary reports of project observers following each school visitation, in the overall tabulation of observed classroom practices, in the summary of interviews and program reports, and in the analysis of courses of study and other curricular materials found in the schools. Contributing as much to the chapter discussion are the attitudes toward the programs expressed by teachers and students in group and individual interviews. Together these findings present a composite portrait of the general characteristics of the programs.

Overall Impressions of Observers

The tone of any school is established by the school administrator, his attitude toward instruction, his relations with the faculty and students, and the aspects of the school which seem to him important. When asked to specify their dominant impression of a school, more observers directed attention to the building principal than to any other single person or characteristic (Table 35). Less frequently named are the tradition of the school, the nature of students and the community, the school plant, and the overall curriculum. Despite the observers' concern with programs in English, the nature and quality of the departmental staff in English ranked only sixth in frequency. Considered almost as important in determining overall characteristics of the schools were administrative practices in the school

district, the introduction of administrative innovations, teaching load, and the "static" or lethargic atmosphere noted in many schools.

Table 35

Dominant Impressions of Overall Educational Programs
Reported by Observers
(n = 218 observers of 113 schools)

Rank Order	Characteristic	Frequency of Mention
1	Quality of School Administrator	84
2	Tradition of Learning in the School	54
3	Nature of Students and the Community	43
4	School Plant	36
5	Curriculum Sequences and Design	34
6	Quality of the Staff in English	29
7	Administrative Practices Associated with Large Districts	20
8	Innovations in Instruction	17
9.5	Teaching Loads	16
9.5	"Static" or Lethargic Atmosphere	16
11	Provision for Slow Students	14
12	Emphasis on Academic Learning	13

Others mentioned by more than one observer: library, grouping, learning aids, English chairman, learning resources, freedom of teachers.

The lack of observers' concern with English programs reflects to some extent the general nature of the question put to them--a question which directed attention away from subject concerns. (What is your dominant impression of the overall educational program which you observed in the school?) Many observers thus refrained from commenting on the English

program, knowing they would discuss such matters at another time. The finding may also suggest a comparatively slight influence of English in determining a school's tone. Of the twelve impressions most frequently mentioned, at least eight are directly attributable to the work of the building principal and may be influenced by him.

Observers from college departments who lacked recent experience with secondary schools were impressed with the near absolute authority wielded by a principal in some school situations. Few college deans or presidents are able to operate with such autonomy, selecting and assigning staff, determining course content, making decisions about both building and instruction, sometimes without reference to higher administrative authorities, and often without reference to many members of the faculty. Such autonomy is not necessarily bad; for in the majority of instances, the building principals were cited for their vision, their concern with academic learning, their ability to work cooperatively with teachers and provide genuine instructional leadership. In such cases, then, the decisions on instruction are made at the school level and have a decided influence on the program. Indeed, where authority is removed from the principal and assigned to the central office, as in most multiple high school districts, observers were quick to note the stultifying effect of such practice on the overall tone of the school. Administrative practice in large districts, almost always reported as a negative force, ranked number eight among factors determining the overall nature of a program even though only 59 percent of the schools were in such multiple high school districts. What bothered observers was the removal in large districts of powers of decision from the school site--decisions about teachers and teaching, about textbooks, about curriculum and programing, about the matters which can be decided wisely only in relation to the individual class. So seriously do such practices affect English that

they are discussed in a separate section of this report (See Chapters II, VIII, and XII).

More frequently, however, the building principal emerged as the instructional leader, determining the relative emphasis between academic and social learning, for example, or the degree of freedom which teachers are permitted to exercise. Observers found most principals of project schools genuinely concerned about the quality of instruction, working to provide important learning experiences for young people, and anxious to improve the quality of instruction in English. Although many lacked the knowledge of the subject, the time, and the resources needed to ensure continuing high quality programs, their interest and influence were manifest.

Several other considerations directly traceable to the leadership of the building principal were identified in a large number of observer reports. Ranking fourth in frequency of citations was the general adequacy of the school plant to house a sound instructional program. The newness of the plant or its architectural beauty seemed less important to observers than its functional contribution to the instructional program. For instance, observers asked themselves if classrooms are provided with adequate equipment? Do shelving and study space enhance the use of the library? Do teachers have a departmental English center, student-conference rooms, and adequate work space when they are not assigned classroom duties? Where these conditions existed, observers were generally impressed with the school plant.

More than any other individual, the principal must be responsible, too, for the intellectual climate in the school. The lack of interest of some faculties in the major educational and social concerns of our day is

only too apparent to an outside observer. It is reflected in lunchroom and lounge conversation of teachers, in the nature of assemblies, in the principal's own interests, and in the way in which these interests are reflected directly and obliquely throughout the school.

An interest in educational developments can be promoted through formal and informal reports of teachers who have attended important professional meetings or visited impressive new programs; an interest in current social events can be promoted through round tables or panel sessions held after school or during noon hour or assemblies involving teachers, students, or outside visitors; a knowledge of world affairs, through special displays and international (student and teacher) exchange programs; an interest in local and world culture, through optional evening or after school projects, as well as through exhibits or special programs featuring outstanding works of art, dance, or drama. In one school, teachers and students organized a special evening arts series of soloists, instrumentalists, and dramatic readings; another planned a subscription series of monthly Wednesday afternoon lectures on contemporary affairs; one school planned a monthly film series, bringing to students in the course of a year such major foreign and domestic works of art as "Potemkin," "Nanook of the North," "The Informer," and "Citizen Kane." A fourth school devoted a spring evening to the creative and performing arts, displaying student work (creative writing, graphic production) and featuring a student prepared program of poetry reading, dance, and song. Such events will be merely window dressing, of course, if they do not grow from a deep and overriding concern of the school faculty with the major cultural and social events of our time. But more often than not, they reflect the virility and vigor of a faculty and a principal intellectually alive, contrasted with the lethargy, the "static" atmosphere of a faculty disinterested in intellectual concerns.

Strength of innovation in education is related to this "static" quality. Although observers did not always find that innovation reflected sound educational purposes (See Chapter XIV on experimental programs), most agree that some experimental activity is essential to the health of any program. Schools must continue to inform themselves of more efficient teaching methods, not ignore new ideas. The difference between those schools concerned with innovations and those lacking concern was sufficiently important to rank eight on the list of dominant impressions; however, as shown later in this chapter, the English departments per se seemed not unduly influenced by new approaches.

Another factor mentioned third most frequently, the characteristics of students and community, proved less determinant of quality in the schools than observers initially anticipated. Some early critics of the design of the Study worried lest the report identify little more than overt and obvious differences in social class, but such was not the result. To be sure, student bodies composed of boys and girls from cosmopolitan, racially-mixed groups representing several social classes did contrast sharply with those composed of students from relatively restricted, middle class white suburban communities, but not always did such differences seem directly to affect the teaching of English. It is part of the current landscape in American education that such conditions must inevitably be found and reported. Surprisingly, however, it was the tradition of education in the school and community which most impressed observers, regardless of its social class distinctions. The excellence of more than a few well established schools seemed attributed less to specific characteristics of program, staff, or students than to a traditional supposition in the school and community that the program must be excellent. "Parents

expect their students to learn here," reported one principal. "We have long had a tradition of academic learning," revealed another. In such schools, achievement-oriented students and staff seem to restrict most of their concern to major academic objectives, tolerating less willingly than others the seductions of social or pseudo-intellectual events.

This manner of orientation is often strengthened by the tradition of an ethnic group in the community. The Swedish families were credited with establishing a vigorous academic program in one city school system; immigrant Jewish parents were raising the tone of another school; the serious scholastic attitudes of Oriental students contributed to a third. The impact of nearby military installations or of governmental laboratories and research centers in outlying towns throughout the nation also contribute materially to the intellectual atmosphere of many schools. When the sons and daughters of engineers, technical workers, or widely traveled military personnel comprise as much as 10 to 15 percent of a student body, their impact is considerable. The southern or southwestern child for whom Germany or Japan may seem little more than a history lesson daily encounters friends who have traveled to these very countries; friends whose families may value knowledge, learning, and academic success far more highly than has his own community in the past. More than any other factor, the presence of a substantial number of such "intruders" seems to be changing the tradition in many long established southern and western schools, and, to the project staff, offers one plausible explanation as to why a number of out-of-the-way schools, rather than others more comfortably regional in composition, emerged as institutions particularly promising in their geographic area. Surely the vigorous character of such schools contrasts sharply with the depressing static quality of some intellectually and geographically isolated schools, schools in which teachers, parents, and

students are a reflection of an excessively rigid, unchanging local social order.

But the decline of tradition was observed with sufficient frequency to deserve special discussion. High schools change as their communities change--a truism of American education but one reflected in many ways by schools visited here. Especially in our changing cities do we find schools whose traditions were created out of the middle class culture of the Thirties faced with school populations and educational needs far different from those initially conceived. Popular reputation of "the" academic school in a community dies slowly; so do the program accoutrements of the college preparatory school. "This isn't the school that it once was," ruefully complains one teacher. Or, "this school is dying if it is not already dead." Certainly a tradition of academic achievement, earned slowly over the years, can persist long after its justification. Many schools and programs, observers felt, were viewed in their decline. And it is not surprising in a study devoted to describing the English program in institutions known to be achieving excellent results in English, that some of these results may be attributed more to yesterday's students than to today's. Faced with changing conditions and student bodies which they do not always understand, teachers struggle to achieve the same standards of performance from their pupils as from those graduates for which their school has been long acclaimed. Many understand, of course, that the standards no longer fit the need of today's students and seek an acceptable compromise. More often than not, project observers commended teachers for their struggle, sympathized with their inability to find educational solutions for problems created by changing neighborhoods, and reported that many programs may be better--at least for academically inclined students--than they would otherwise be as a result of such attempts to "live up" to the

memories of the recent past. Where schools permit such tradition to interfere with discharging responsibilities to new kinds of students and new needs, the attempt is, of course, quite indefensible.

Another "tradition" also influences the character of school faculties--not always in favorable ways--and this is the tradition of public experimentation. A number of schools visited in the Study had achieved enviable national distinction as a result of their innovations and contributions to American education. Inevitably, such publicity creates in a faculty a desirable esprit de corps, an enthusiasm for change. Inevitably, too, the reputation attracts to the schools visitors from everywhere in the country. Insofar as the English programs visited in the present Study, such publicity too often seems to have an undesirable effect. Among some faculties, for example, it creates a parochial smugness, a satisfaction with things as they are, an attitude of superiority and lack of concern with the total profession. Said one observer's report:

The overall educational program seemed to me perfectly mediocre, but the mediocrity was disguised by a false air of hustle, bustle, needless confusion, and unbelievable scheduling complexities Teachers and students alike are so thoroughly enamoured of the system, and so convinced they are of superior intellectual capacity that everyone felt, as nearly as I could tell, that he must perform in an unusual way Needless complexity of scheduling and administrative organization that has as its purpose imitation of the private preparatory school, and as its result, the substitution of constant motion for solid substance, pose for real achievement.

Perhaps even more serious is the discovery that in many such experimentally-oriented schools, administrators develop a greater concern with the superficial trappings of programs--getting teams of teachers together, achieving flexibility in scheduling, substituting chimes or music for bells--rather than with the programs themselves, the subject content, and especially with the pupils who are to be taught. These observations are discussed more

fully in Chapter XIV. Perhaps any high school sufficiently distinguished to attract national attention will change as a result of the publicity it receives. It becomes influenced by what TheodoreSizer refers to as the "gee whiz" syndrome.¹ Administrators and teachers in such schools, however, need to exercise caution so as not to confuse glowing public reports of their practices in teaching with the real event.

According to the project observers, then, two broad factors more than anything else determine the overall excellence of a high school program: (1) the quality of instructional and administrative leadership demonstrated by the principal; (2) the school's position in the community with respect to the aspirations and traditions of learning. Again and again these influences seemed to predominate and to affect English instruction in both positive and negative ways.

General Strengths and Weaknesses of English Programs

Just as administrative leadership affects the intellectual climate of a school, so it profoundly influences the nature of English instruction. Following the complete sequence of group and individual interviews, the study of programs, guides, and questionnaires, and the visits to classrooms, each project observer submitted a final summary of his individual assessment of the English program. Tables 36 and 37 present an analysis of the strengths and weaknesses identified by observers in 218 separate summary reports. The most apparent indication is that the quality of both staff and departmental leadership influences the teaching of English in decisive ways.

The preparation and characteristics of teachers of English in these schools are described separately (See Chapter II). Their overall excellence,

¹TheodoreSizer, "Classroom Revolution: Reform or Panacea?" The Saturday Review, XLVIII (June 10, 1965), 54.

• Table 36

Strengths of English Departments Identified in Summary Reports
 (n = 218 summary reports on 113 schools)

Rank Order	Strengths	Number of Times Mentioned
1	Quality of the English Staff	90
2	Program in Composition	50
3	Department Head	49
4	Resources Available for Teaching	40
5.5	Climate of Work in Department	33
5.5	Program in Literature	33
7	Light Teaching Load	32
8	Experimentation and Innovation	30
9	Guided Individual Reading Programs	23
10	Library	22
11	Program in Honors or Advanced Placement	21
12	Program in Speech or Oral English	19

Also mentioned frequently: central administration of school 17;
 electives in English 14; provisions for slow learners 14;
 involvement in professional activity 12; grouping 11;
 relation to neighboring university 11.

however, seems indisputable--as some 82 percent possess majors in English, more than 50 percent possess Master's degrees, and an overwhelming number express a great zeal for teaching. In light of these facts, sound preparation and enlightened professional attitudes evolve as critical issues. But team observers noted other characteristics about the preparation of teachers. Seldom, for example, did they find uniformly excellent teachers in any department. Instead, the successful English departments seem to rely more

on a nucleus of outstanding English teachers who serve as models or catalysts for the greater number of mediocre or at least nondescript teachers in the department. Not many wholly incompetent English teachers, however, were employed in any of these schools; rather, in those departments where the quality of the English staff was cited as a weakness, there tended to be large numbers of English teachers of average quality and interest who could have been inspired to more successful efforts by a small cadre of gifted teachers. The implication for departmental staffing is thus clear, and seems to level support to systems of merit pay as special recognition for the truly "master teacher." Schools must find ways of rewarding and thus retaining these master English teachers, who can fulfill the function of increasing the level of performance of other teachers. A major responsibility, then, of any administration seeking excellence in English is to attract a number of gifted teachers and to provide opportunity for the chemistry of interaction among English teachers.

As "master teachers" are important, in equal respect the quality and leadership of departmental chairmen cannot be underestimated. Mentioned third in frequency among strengths and first in weaknesses (Table 37), the chairman--if well prepared and given adequate time and responsibility--can provide the vision and inspiration vital to a truly outstanding program. So variable were the conditions and responsibilities of the chairmen in these schools and so critical the implications, that the project staff called two separate conferences to formulate recommendations on the functioning of the English chairman.² The characteristics of

²Robert LaCampagne (ed.), High School Departments of English: Their Organization, Administration, and Supervision (Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965).

Table 37

Weaknesses of English Departments Identified in Summary Reports
(n = 218 summary reports on 113 schools)

Rank Order	Strengths	Number of Times Mentioned
1	Inadequate Departmental Leadership	63
2	Inadequate Provisions for Slow Learners	58
3	Lack of Sequence and Integration in Curriculum	49
4	Unreasonable Teaching Loads	46
5	Inadequate Program in Language	43
6	Poor Teaching Staff	42
7	Inadequate Program in Composition	41
8	Routine, Mechanical Teaching	37
9	Lack of Departmental Philosophy or Point of View	29
10	Absence of Classroom Book Collections and Supplementary Texts	27
11.5	Lack of Supervision and Help for Beginning Teachers	26
11.5	Inadequate Program in Literature	26

Other weaknesses frequently mentioned: lack of support by school administration 19; inadequate grouping practices 17; lack of attention to reading skills 16; large city administrative practices 11; overemphasis on lecturing 11; inadequate supply of textbooks 9; rapid teacher turnover 9; inadequate library 8.

desirable departmental leadership are discussed elsewhere in this report (See Chapter VIII). However, the responsibility of the chairman for the effective operation of many aspects of the program identified as characteristic strengths or weaknesses is apparent. Clearly the adequacy of resources and the climate of work (strengths rated 4 and 5.5) depend

on the chairman; so do the lack of sequence and articulation, the lack of a departmental point of view toward teaching English, and the inadequacy of the help provided beginning teachers (weaknesses ranked 3, 9, 11.5). The absence of creative teaching--reliance on routine, mechanical approaches (weakness No. 8)--perhaps reflect as much the absence of direct classroom supervision as the general inadequacy of the staff.

Programs designed for separate aspects of English provoked various reactions from project observers. The most striking overall impression is the absence of programs in language (grammar, usage, semantics, etc.) among the best of reported strengths and its high rating among recurrent weaknesses (No. 5). As the special chapter makes clear (Chapter VI), observers found little to praise in language instruction programs in the schools. In effect, what the Study clearly reveals is the absence of any national agreement or consensus concerning the teaching of language, leading to chaos in most school programs. In composition and in literature, however, observers were both quick to praise and quick to condemn.

Programs designed for advanced college preparatory students were so frequently identified as outstanding that this characteristic emerges as a special strength (No. 11). But such was not true of English programs for the slow student, the lower track. In school after school observers were disturbed to find little attention directed to the needs of the less able student. Confusion and diffidence on the part of teachers toward such instruction were noted, as well as a general lack of expended time, energy, and funds. Of course, this finding may reflect the unique nature of the schools studied, schools selected because of their reportedly strong programs in English for college preparatory students. Yet little evidence is available to suggest that stronger programs for the slow student are in

operation elsewhere (See discussion for this topic in Chapter XI).

Another major characteristic of outstanding English programs is the adequacy of the supply of books and learning materials. Of vital importance is a rich supply of textbooks in every classroom, a well-stocked accessible library, supplementary books and learning resources, and a classroom book collection. When present, they add substantially to the effectiveness of a program (strengths 4, 9, 10); when inadequate or unavailable, they clearly hamper the teacher (weakness No. 10).

Also characteristic of the better English programs are the reasonable teaching loads, albeit findings fail to reveal it as a major inhibitive factor in instruction. Teaching conditions ranked seventh among the strengths, and fourth among weaknesses. College professors among the teams of observers alternated between pity and despair over what they found in some school situations: average pupil-teacher ratios in excess of 150, five classes per teacher, committee assignments, lack of preparation periods. Yet in one-fourth of the schools a deliberate attempt had been made by principals to conform to the general standards recommended by the National Council of Teachers of English and the Commission on English of the College Entrance Examination Board--four classes, not more than 100 pupils, time for paper-grading, conferences, and preparation. In most schools where such efforts are being made, teacher morale seemed higher, and the level of instruction seemed elevated. Although other factors, such as quality of the staff, leadership in the department, and resources available were more crucial than load in contributing to the overall excellence of programs, a substantial number of observers agreed that load was a critical factor.

Observers in this Study thus feel the major strengths and weaknesses of English departments fall into five distinct categories: quality of the

faculty, strength and vision of departmental chairman, adequacy of resources, intelligent planning of various programs, and reasonable teaching conditions. In subsequent chapters of this report, each of these characteristics is discussed in relation to particular aspects of the programs.

Classroom Practices in Teaching

The most important aspect in assessing programs in English consisted of visits to preselected classrooms to observe the teaching of English. To guide observers in recording impressions at the time of observation, a special card for recording data was designed (See Appendix B, Instrument No. 23). The card provided the observer with a way of recording unique characteristics of the classroom: the number of minutes observed, the emphasis in content and method, the degree of pupil involvement, and related concerns. The cards later were analyzed separately, as were overall summary reports on the classroom visits completed by each observer.

A total of 32,580 minutes were observed in 1,609 classes of the 116 schools initially included in the study. Of these, some 298 visits or 18.5 percent were to classes classified as advanced or honors sections; 187 or 18.4 percent were to terminal or "slow" sections; 682 or 42.4 percent were to general sections or classes grouped heterogeneously in terms of ability. Some 442 classes or 27.6 percent of those visited were grouped in ways not known to or not recorded by the observers. In most cases these classes were "middle groups" or "heterogeneously grouped" sections. Not analyzed or reported here are the reports on additional classroom visits to programs selected as representative of Catholic, independent, large city schools, or experimental English programs. The discussion of these programs is presented in later chapters of the report.

The Content of English Classes

The summaries of observers present a composite portrait of various emphases in English instruction. Although they represent only a sampling of practices in these schools, the cumulative teaching time observed is sufficiently great to provide reasonable assurance that uncharacteristic or unusual practices occasionally observed do not skew the entire report. To be sure, teachers did know when to expect observers (although they did not know which classes would be observed); all teachers were asked to continue with their regular class schedule, and most of them did. Teachers preferring not to be observed were permitted to so indicate on a special form (See Instrument No. 5). In most schools, few classes were closed to observers; those that were closed were in most cases comprised of difficult groups of slow learners. Much more frequently, teachers invited observers into all of their classes, but since time often did not permit observing all teachers in all schools, a selective process was developed on the basis that each observer should arrange only visits which seemed most reasonable in view of the overall purposes of the Project. To facilitate this process, staff members were often directed by the recommendations of either the principal or department chairman to classes which were assessed as outstanding. This fact, together with the inevitable tendency of insecure or inexperienced English teachers to close classes, suggests that to the extent that observations were atypical, they were skewed to include a relatively greater number of "average" and "better" classes.

On few occasions did observers report evidence of teachers in the schools preparing especially for observers. In such situations, a slightly greater number of student presentations and a few more study periods were encountered, but general observations indicate that the nature of instruction

did not differ markedly from that in classes not receiving advance information. In the judgment of the project staff, these small differences did not materially alter the overall findings, most of which reveal strikingly pronounced characteristics.

Analysis of these classroom reports made on specially prepared cards provided a number of significant deductions, probably none so revealing, however, as the prevailing tendency to emphasize certain components of English almost to the exclusion of others. According to reports on 32,580 minutes of classroom observation, the teaching of literature is emphasized in the high school more than all other aspects of English combined. Table 38 reveals that of the total time observed, some 17,036 minutes or 52.2 percent of the instruction emphasized literature. In contrast, only 13.5 percent or 4,386 minutes were devoted to language and 15.7 percent or 5,134 minutes to composition. Number of minutes and percentage emphasized in other aspects of English were: 1,662 minutes (4.9 percent) speech; 411 minutes (4.5 percent) reading; 424 minutes (1.3 percent) mass media. The dominant emphasis on literature is demonstrated even more clearly by comparing tendencies by separate classes. In some 785 separate classes, literature was rated as primary emphasis; in 123, it rated second; in 10, third. Composition was seen as primary emphasis in 242 classes; as second emphasis in 86; as third emphasis in 14. Observers reported language first in 205; second in 96; third in 17. The primary concern of teachers with literature is apparent throughout; in most classes observers did not even report a second emphasis.

The emphasis in classroom teaching varies somewhat with the level and type of class, although literature received greater attention than any other aspect of English, whether in terminal classes in grade ten or

Table 38

Content Emphasized in Classroom Teaching
(n = 1,609 English classes in 116 schools)

Rank	Emphasis Reported By Observer	Total Number of Minutes	Percent
1	Literature	17,036	52.2
2	Composition	5,134	15.7
3	Language	4,386	13.5
4	Speech--formal or informal	1,662	4.9
5	Reading	1,411	4.5
6	Mass Media	424	1.3
7	No Content Emphasized	273	0.8
	Other	<u>2,254</u>	<u>7.1</u>
	Total	32,580	100.0

advanced classes in grade twelve. Table 39 compares the findings for tenth and twelfth year English classes; Table 40 for classes of slow or terminal students. Certain distinctions are worth noting. Even though receiving primary attention in all classes at all levels, literature receives less emphasis during grade ten and less emphasis in terminal classes than it does in grade twelve. Proportionally greater attention is thus devoted to language. Almost 20 percent of all instructional time for slow students emphasizes language (often through usage drill sheets), and more than 20 percent of grade ten instructional time is devoted to content in this area. Indeed for many students the review of grammar introduced at this level seems to be the last formal study of the structure of English in the high school program.

The only other perceptible shift in emphasis related to grade level

FIGURE NO. 3

Content Emphasis in Classroom Teaching

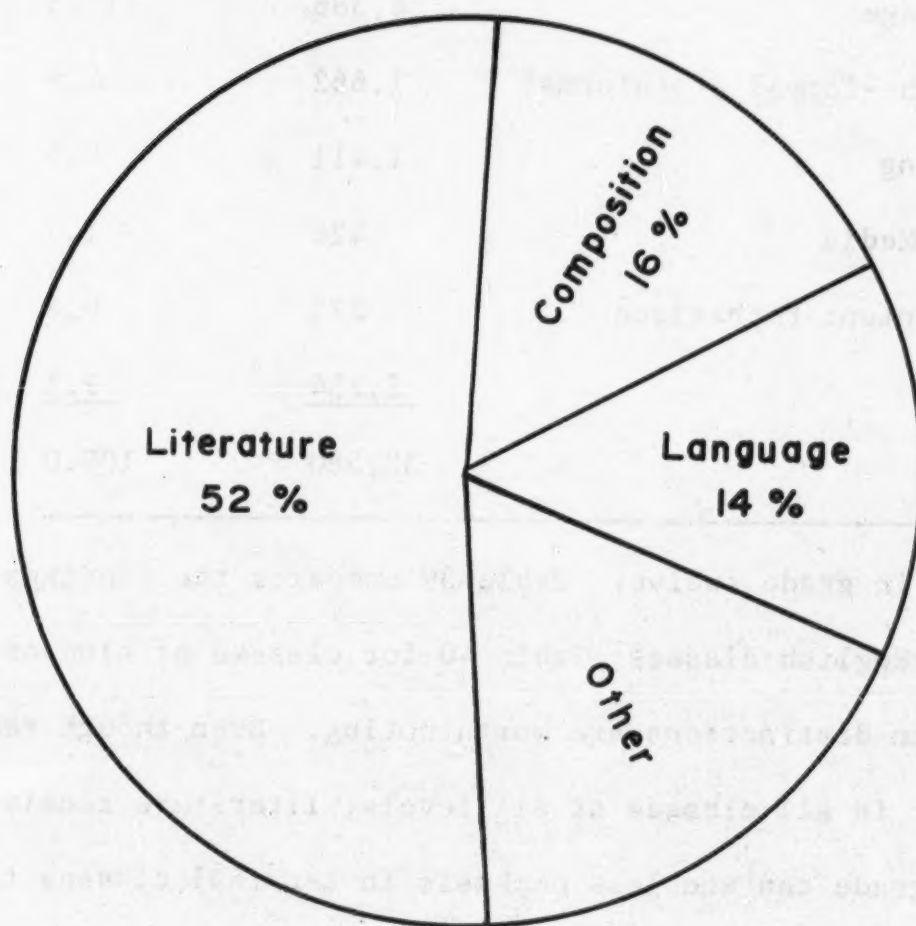


Table 39

Comparison of Content Emphasized
in Tenth and Twelfth Grade Classes

Emphasis Reported by Observers	Grade 10 (n = 9,410 minutes)		Grade 12 (n = 9,602 minutes)	
	Number	Minutes Percentage	Number	Minutes Percentage
Literature	4,327	46.0	5,916	61.5
Language	2,017	21.5	810	8.4
Composition	1,397	14.8	1,338	13.9
Speech	680	7.2	273	2.9
Reading	259	2.8	314	3.3
Mass Media	134	1.4	160	1.7
No Content Emphasized	50	0.5	93	1.0
Other	<u>546</u>	<u>5.8</u>	<u>698</u>	<u>7.3</u>
Total	9,410	100.0	9,602	100.0

Table 40

Content Emphasized in Teaching Terminal Students
(n = 3,618 minutes of classroom observation)

Rank	Emphasis Reported by Observer	Total Number of Minutes	Percentage of Time Emphasized	Percentage Reported All Classes
1	Literature	1,447	40.8	52.2
2	Language	719	19.9	13.5
3	Composition	541	15.0	15.7
4	Reading	374	10.4	4.5
5	Speech	236	6.5	4.9
6	No Content Emphasized	106	2.9	0.8
7	Mass Media	15	0.4	1.3
8	Other	<u>150</u>	<u>4.1</u>	<u>7.1</u>
	Total	3,618	100.0	100.0

or grouping is the finding that 10.4 percent of the instructional time for terminal classes emphasizes the teaching of reading skills, almost double the percentage for classes in general and an indication of the stress placed on remedial or corrective reading for students in lower ability groups. Somewhat more time is devoted to formal and informal speech activity in terminal groups and in the tenth grade. More surprising is the discovery that the percent of classroom time stressing composition hovers around 15 percent regardless of type of class or grade level.

That department chairmen are only slightly aware of the high degree of emphasis on literature identified by the observation reports was revealed by a special questionnaire completed by the chairmen of 104 of the original 116 schools. Their estimate of the percentage of time corresponds in direction, although not in intensity, to the findings of observers. Table 41 presents the data. In effect, at every level teachers

Table 41

Percentage of Time Devoted to Aspects of English
at Different Levels Estimated by Department Chairmen
(n = 104 chairmen)

Aspect of Content	Percentage of Time Estimated Expended in Grade		
	10	11	12
Literature	30.5	41.5	46.5
Composition	21.5	22.0	24.5
Language	23.0	18.5	15.5
Reading	4.5	3.0	2.0
Speech	8.5	6.5	4.5
Other Aspects	<u>12.0</u>	<u>8.5</u>	<u>9.5</u>
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

appear to devote almost 15 percent additional time to teaching literature than the department chairman estimates and 20 to 25 percent less time to composition and language.

The findings seem clear. Literature receives major emphasis throughout the program and this emphasis increases at higher grade levels. Language receives its greatest emphasis in grade ten and declines in emphasis thereafter. Not more than one-seventh of classroom time is directed toward instruction in composition. Reading receives greater attention in slow classes than in others but like speech and mass media seems not to receive great attention.

Additional insight into the content emphasis of instruction was gleaned from interviews of departmental chairmen and group interviews of twelfth grade students. In most cases students were those in above-average ability groups, often those listed as Advanced Placement. One series of questions asked both chairmen and students to estimate where thirty selected concepts were often taught in the English program or if they received any emphasis at all (See Instrument No. 8). The thirty items were intended as a sampling, not a definitive list of concepts that could be taught during the high school years. They were selected by the staff upon recommendation of the advisory committee after a preliminary field tryout indicated the potential value of such an interview device. Some items were dropped at this time since certain concepts (hubris, for example) confused chairmen and students alike and therefore seemed non-discriminatory. The final concepts were selected as broadly representative of ideas often stressed in literature, language, and composition.

Table 42 presents the interview reports of student and chairmen reactions to the concept check list. The apparent disparity between the

Table 42

Instructional Emphasis on Selected Concepts at Different Grade Levels
Reported by Twelfth Grade Classes and Departmental Chairmen

Concept	12th Grade Students (n = 96 classes)					English Department Chairmen (n = 91)				
	Percentage reporting concept initially stressed at grade level indicated					Percentage reporting concept initially stressed at grade level indicated				
	Prior to 10	10	11	12	Not Introduced	Prior to 10	10	11	12	Not Introduced
1 Connotation	32.3	28.1	24.0	5.2	10.4	27.7	42.2	20.0	7.8	2.3
2 Alliteration	42.0	35.3	17.5	1.0	4.2	52.3	35.2	9.1	2.3	1.1
3 Slanting	21.7	17.4	14.1	3.3	43.5	13.1	20.2	29.8	16.6	20.3
4 Metaphor	77.8	15.8	4.2	1.1	1.1	48.9	42.2	6.7	1.1	1.1
5 Blank Verse	55.3	25.5	17.0	1.1	1.1	16.9	61.7	16.9	4.5	0.0
6 Argumentation	14.9	19.2	23.5	7.3	35.1	8.9	30.0	30.0	16.7	14.4
7 Inference	16.0	18.1	29.8	4.2	31.9	14.6	24.7	37.1	15.7	7.9
8 Allusion	18.9	37.9	32.7	3.2	7.3	19.6	37.9	27.6	10.3	4.6
9 Parallel Structure	35.9	34.8	17.4	5.4	6.5	16.7	38.1	34.5	10.7	0.0
10 Colloquial	79.4	14.1	5.4	1.1	0.0	41.6	43.8	7.9	4.5	2.2
11 Epic	57.6	27.2	8.7	5.4	1.1	33.0	25.0	19.3	20.4	2.3
12 Cliche	71.0	20.4	5.4	0.0	3.2	22.9	31.3	31.3	9.7	4.8
13 Jargon	42.1	17.9	17.9	6.3	15.8	10.5	34.9	26.7	16.3	11.6
14 Satire	63.6	25.0	7.3	3.1	1.0	12.3	39.8	26.2	21.7	0.0
15 Analogy	17.4	39.1	34.8	7.6	1.1	6.2	29.6	46.9	16.1	1.2
16 Determiners	3.2	1.0	2.2	2.2	91.4	12.2	11.0	12.2	9.7	54.9
17 Paradox	20.6	44.3	27.9	4.1	3.1	4.6	24.1	35.6	33.3	2.4
18 Redundance	44.1	22.4	17.3	5.3	10.9	24.7	34.6	25.9	9.9	4.9
19 Nominative Absolutes	26.1	16.3	10.9	3.2	43.5	10.6	23.3	27.8	9.4	28.9
20 Dramatic Irony	5.2	31.9	31.9	20.6	10.4	4.7	30.6	30.6	29.4	4.7
21 Precipis	11.3	15.7	23.6	11.2	38.2	17.2	29.4	35.8	8.8	8.8
22 Sentence Patterns	54.3	17.0	6.4	3.2	19.1	32.3	28.4	10.4	3.5	25.4
23 Allegory	21.9	38.6	28.1	8.3	3.1	14.9	33.3	23.0	26.5	2.3
24 Consistency of Diction	12.4	15.7	23.6	10.1	38.2	18.5	32.1	18.5	17.3	13.6
25 Levels of Abstraction	2.2	4.5	13.5	10.1	69.7	4.9	10.9	23.2	35.4	25.6
26 Narrative Point of View	32.3	31.3	19.8	10.4	6.2	30.7	42.0	17.1	5.7	4.5
27 Periodic Sentence	3.3	1.1	5.4	12.0	78.2	15.8	29.3	15.8	24.5	14.6
28 Conditional Clause	50.5	25.8	12.9	0.0	10.8	31.3	42.5	13.7	1.3	11.2
29 Tone	14.6	36.0	25.8	18.0	5.6	14.8	33.3	28.6	18.7	4.6
30 Euphemism	7.6	6.4	28.0	21.5	36.5	2.5	13.9	40.5	38.0	5.1

reactions of students and department chairmen may be explained by the shorter memories of the students, who report most concepts stressed at lower levels than do the department chairmen. For example, for students the modal percentage for teaching of the thirty concepts is prior to grade ten, whereas chairmen reported only five concepts taught most frequently at this level. Similarly, the percentage responses of students for grades ten and eleven consistently tend to be higher than for chairmen.

Certain concepts which chairmen believe are stressed seem not to be recalled by students. The disparity exceeds 20 percent for slanting, argumentation, inference, determiners, *précis*, consistency of diction, levels of abstraction, periodic sentence, and euphemism. To some extent, of course, the difference may be attributable to student failure to relate the terms used by interviewers to concepts which had been studied but identified in some other way.

Perhaps the most significant finding is the verification which these data provide of the major stress on literature in most programs, the adequacy of many programs in composition, and the fragmentation of nearly all language programs. Both chairmen and students agree that many literary concepts are thoroughly taught. Alliteration, metaphor, blank verse, epic, satire, analogy, paradox, and allegory are known to more than 95 percent of the respondents. On the other hand, more than one-third of all classes, and sometimes more than half, indicate that they have never been introduced to slanting (43.5 percent), argumentation (35.1 percent), determiners (91.4 percent), nominative absolutes (43.5 percent), consistency of diction (38.2 percent), levels of abstraction (69.7 percent), and euphemism (36.5 percent). (The advanced level classes interviewed should be recalled.) In any well organized program of language study which provides planned attention to the

processes and problems of communicating through language, to semantics and symbolic logic as well as to syntax and orthography, surely most of the seven concepts must receive attention. Such traditional matters as the conditional clause and parallel structure should and do receive attention in almost all programs, but 19.1 percent of the students and 25.4 percent of the teachers say they do not study sentence patterns. That many schools have abandoned traditional school grammar without adopting a modern descriptive grammar (or any other) is shown in the large scale rejection of work on nominative absolutes on the one hand and of determiners on the other.

Some concepts related to composition have already been mentioned. The varying reports on the teaching of such concepts as connotation, slanting, argumentation, cliché, and jargon suggest the variability of the programs observed.

In itself the data accumulated on the Concept Check List seems inconclusive, but in conjunction with the observers' reports, it further substantiates the strength of present offerings in literature, the variability of programs in composition, and the confusion of programs in language.

Methodology in the English Classes

The literature which receives such overwhelming emphasis is more likely to be taught through lecture and recitation than through classroom discussion. This is the conclusion to be drawn from the data presented in Table 43 reporting the methods of teaching observed in the 32,580 minutes of classroom visits. Each observer indicates which of eight procedures was used by checking the procedure most frequently observed on the Classroom Observation Card (Instrument No. 23).

Although the data are based only on the most frequently used method, observers also listed second and third methods whenever these were seen.

Table 43

Methods Most Frequently Used in Classroom Teaching
as Reported by Observers
(n = 1,609 English classes in 116 schools)

Rank	Method	Total Number of Minutes Receiving Major Use	Percentage
1	Recitation	7,568	22.2
2	Lecture or Demonstration	6,709	21.1
3	Discussion	5,971	19.5
4	Student Presentation	4,738	14.3
5	Silent Work	3,479	10.4
6	Socratic Questioning	814	2.2
7	Group Work	618	1.9
8	Audio-Visual (Teachers Operating Equipment)	505	1.6
	Other	<u>2,178</u>	<u>6.8</u>
	Total	32,670	100.0

Moreover, when the teachers' first three emphases on method are combined, the overall rankings in frequency of method vary only slightly. The first method, discussion, then emerges as the one most frequently observed, followed closely by recitation and lecture: discussion, 711 mentions; recitation, 610; lecture, 519; silent work, 330; student presentation, 288; Socratic questioning, 184; group work, 84; audio-visual presentation by the teacher, 52; other, 82.

The data clearly reveal that in most schools the classrooms are teacher-dominated. Recitation--with its frequent emphasis on simple factual answers--and lectures and demonstrations with their emphases on "telling" students occupy more than 40 percent of class time. Thus at least 40 percent

of class time in English seems devoted to approaches which stress passive and apparently deductive learning. Too seldom during such intervals in the classroom do many students actually seem involved and concerned with the learning at hand. Periods of lecture and recitation can be useful, of course, but may well be overemphasized. Much of the time expended on lecturing is unplanned--or at least unplanned as lecture. Far more frequently seen than the carefully prepared presentation is the teacher who finds he must explain, tell, or amplify whenever students fail to respond to question.

Table 44

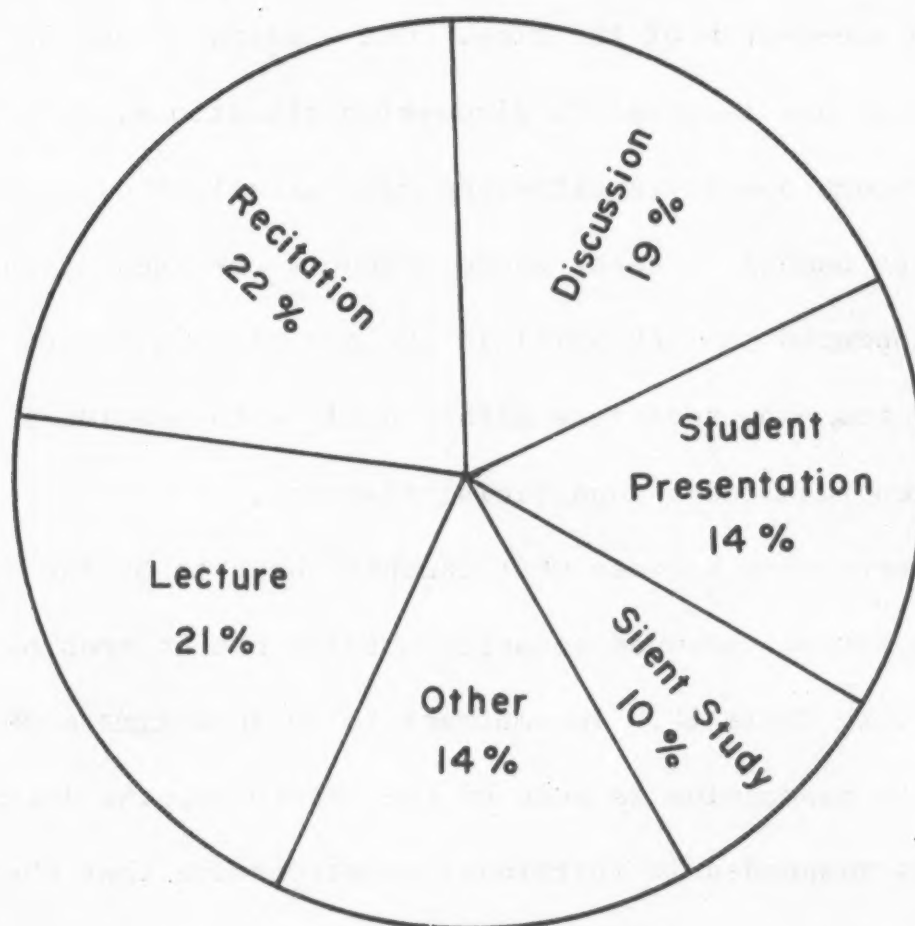
Methods Most Often Used in Classroom Teaching
as Indicated by Teachers
(n = 1,331)

Rank	Method	Percentage
1	Discussion	53.6
2	Socratic	17.6
3	Lecture	14.2
4	Recitation	7.0
5	Student Presentation	2.2
6	Silent Work	1.3
7	Small Group	0.8
8	Team Teaching	1.1
	Other	0.4
	Audio-Visual Aids	0.1
	No response	<u>1.7</u>
		100.0

Because classroom discussion is the basic approach through which ideas are developed and skills of thinking taught in most classrooms, it is a

FIGURE NO. 4

Methods Emphasized in Classroom Teaching



surprising discovery that only 19.5 percent of class time is primarily devoted to discussion. Furthermore, in only a very few classrooms were teachers resorting to group work (1.9 percent) or Socratic questioning (2.2 percent). Thus emphasis on the active process of thinking through ideas in language, essential to all forms of discussion, does not receive attention more than one-fourth of the time. One wonders, then, where students will learn to use language in discussion situations, if not in English class. Although observers witnessed many excellent discussions, they reported a great number of cases where teachers confused discussion and recitation or appeared to lack skill in the art of questioning. In the latter respect, too many questions either dealt with outside issues or led nowhere and often required a superficial response.

An obvious discrepancy between what teachers hope to be the case regarding classroom method and what actually obtains can be seen by comparing Table 43 with Table 44. In contrast to an approximate 20 percent given over to discussion as seen by the observers, the large majority of teachers responded in individual questionnaire that they give discussion first priority. If Socratic were to be combined with discussion, some 70 percent of all teachers say that they depend on these approaches ahead of any others--a fact that simply does not exist even in these selected high schools.

In sharp contrast to the low percentage of time emphasizing discussion (19.5 percent), almost 15 percent of instructional time emphasized student presentation (14.3 percent), usually in the form of oral reports but sometimes panel discussions or plays. Next in frequency of emphasis was silent work (10.4 percent), involving normal reading or writing periods. These percentages are probably high because of the tendency of an occasional

teacher to substitute student activity for his own when under observation. Yet, more peculiarly, the importance of providing carefully guided reading and writing under the direction of the English teacher has been so emphasized during recent years that a 10 percent emphasis is probably minimal.³ Of the 14.3 percent of time devoted to student presentation, much of it seems focused on oral book reports of no relevance to instruction, reports which provide a useful oral activity for one student at the expense of thirty others. English teaching specialists who for long have recommended that other oral activities be substituted for the formal book report have yet to influence many teachers in the schools.

Perhaps the most startling disclosure is the virtual rejection by English teachers of audio-visual aids. Some of the possible reasons for the absence of projectors, record players, and tape recorders is related to their lack of availability, a problem discussed later in this report (See Chapters VIII and XI). The findings seem to make clear that, in spite of imaginative and productive use of such aids by an occasional individual teacher, most high school English teachers do not consider such aids to be essential.

A comparison of the teaching procedures used in tenth and twelfth grade classes reveals only one major difference. Some 28.9 percent of all tenth grade class time is devoted to recitation, a percentage which falls to 20.9 percent during the senior year. The emphasis on discussion changes inversely, from 14.8 percent of class time in grade ten to 21.2 percent in grade twelve. These changes undoubtedly reflect a varying emphasis in

³See, for example, Paul Diedrich, "The Rutgers' Plan for Cutting Class Size in Two," English Journal, XLIV (April, 1960), 229-236, 266; Arno Jewett and Clarence Bish, Improving English Composition (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1964).

content. The proportionately greater emphasis on language study in grade ten as revealed in Table 45 (21.5 percent as compared with 8.4 percent in grade twelve) reflects the tendency discussed elsewhere to introduce in the tenth grade a final review of English grammar. In doing so, a great many teachers plan oral usage drills or stress class recitation on the elements of English language. Class discussion, on the other hand, with its emphasis on interpretation, sharing of opinions, and generalization, is more likely associated with the teaching of literature and composition. Thus, discussion increased accordingly from 14.8 percent in grade ten to 21.2 percent in grade twelve, as the emphasis on literature rises from 43.3 percent to 61.5 percent.

Table 45

A Comparison of Teaching Methods Observed in
Tenth and Twelfth Grade Classes

Method Observed	Grade 10 (n = 9,220 minutes)		Grade 12 (n = 9,602 minutes)	
	Number Minutes	Percentage	Number Minutes	Percentage
Recitation	2,713	28.9	2,015	20.9
Lecture	1,767	18.9	2,104	21.9
Student Presentation	1,385	14.9	1,417	14.8
Discussion	1,379	14.8	2,030	21.2
Silent Work	848	9.1	793	8.2
Audio-Visual	264	2.9	103	1.1
Socratic Questioning	170	1.9	273	2.8
Group Work	154	1.7	255	2.6
Other	<u>640</u>	<u>6.9</u>	<u>612</u>	<u>6.4</u>
Total	9,220	100.0	9,602	100.0

One curious tendency reflects the uncertainty of teachers concerning

the teaching of speech. Although observers found the tenth grade to be the level where formal and informal speech is likely to receive greatest stress in general English classes (7.2 percent declining to 2.9 percent in grade twelve--Table 38), discussion and Socratic questioning appear to receive less attention at this level than later, and the percentage of class time devoted to student presentation remains at 14.8 percent at both levels.

Teachers do modify their approaches to teaching when faced with slow learners (Table 46). They rely more on recitations requiring simple factual answers (28.3 percent) and on silent work (19.6 percent). They decrease the emphasis on class discussion (from 19.5 percent to 9.2 percent) and on student presentation (14.3 percent to 8.3 percent). Curiously, they do not lecture less, for the percentage of class time devoted to "telling and showing" by the teacher is reported as 20.9 percent in terminal classes, compared with 21.1 percent in general. Although some individual teachers were found to achieve brilliant results (See discussion in Chapter XI), the majority were found to rely on highly routinized activity--exercises in reading and usage, recitations dealing only with facts, study questions and workbooks. Thus the reason for emphasis on silent activity and recitation. The stress on the lecture method reflects less the tendency of teachers to prepare planned presentation than to their disposition--perhaps formed partly out of desperation to explain a story, to tell a plot, to analyze a sentence for students who seem not able to develop such insights on their own. Regrettably, with slow learners who often respond particularly well to auditory and visual approaches to learning, the teachers in terminal classes actually make slightly less use of audio-visual equipment than do English teachers in general (1.2 percent). The slight increase observed in Socratic questioning (3.2 percent as contrasted with 2.2 percent in general) is a

hopeful sign but the number of minutes observed is small, and the increase seems attributable to the success of a few unique teachers.

Table 46

Teaching Methods Emphasized with Terminal Students
(n = 3,618 minutes of classroom observation)

Method Emphasized by Observers	Total Number of Minutes	Percentage of Time for Terminal Students	Percentage Reported Used with All Classes
Recitation	1,023	28.3	22.2
Lecture	756	20.9	21.1
Silent Work	711	19.6	10.4
Discussion	334	9.2	19.5
Student Presentation	300	8.3	14.3
Socratic Questioning	115	3.2	2.2
Group Work	55	1.5	1.9
Audio-Visual	44	1.2	1.6
Other	<u>280</u>	<u>7.8</u>	<u>6.8</u>
Total	3,618	100.0	100.0

Recitation, lecture, and discussion, except with terminal groups, thus seem the basic approaches utilized by high school teachers of English, with observers reporting that most teachers need assistance in planning and conducting discussion. More use, clearly, can be made of audio-visual aids, of group work, and of Socratic questioning.

In the reports summarizing their classroom observation in each school, observers were also asked to indicate the relative presence or absence in the English program of thirteen teaching practices widely discussed in current professional writing. The practices, which ranged from the teaching of remedial reading to use of pupil-teacher conferences, were thought by the

advisory committee and the project staff to be sufficiently important to deserve special attention. The summary reports on the frequency of these thirteen practices (listed in Table 47) supplement the assessment of emphasis in classroom teaching previously reported.

The data in Table 47 indicate on the one hand those practices widely or frequently used by teachers in the schools; on the other hand, those practices only occasionally, infrequently, or never used. Of more startling interest, however, is the contrast in Tables 48 and 49 between the rank order of practices most frequently and least frequently observed. Clearly, reliance on single texts, either language or literature, for all students in a class remains characteristic of much instruction in English, although a considerable use of multiple sets of books, most often literature texts, and classroom book collections are reported in some schools. Perhaps the most significant fact, however, is that in only 55 percent of the reports (103 out of 187) were observers able to report the use of the single anthology as "widespread" or "frequent," even though the practice ranks first among those most characteristic of schools in the Study and twelfth in practices infrequently or never seen. Similarly, the presence of grammar texts, ranked second, is reported of frequent or widespread use in only 52 percent of the reports. This discrepancy is logically accounted for by evidence presented later, suggesting that the language books tend to be almost universally purchased and universally ignored. Many teachers keep a classroom set on their shelves in conformity with the departmental requirement (See Chapter VI).

Perhaps the most striking characteristic of the schools observed is their diversity with respect to the listed practices. Surely observers were in greater agreement as to what they did not see than to what they did see.

Table 47

Frequency of Thirteen Selected Classroom Practices
(n = 187 Observer Reports on 107 Schools)

	Much in Evidence; Widespread to Constant Use	Frequent Use by Some Teachers	Some Indication of Occasional Use	Infrequent Use Suggested	No Indication Of Any Use	No Report on Practice
Classroom Book Collections	10	18	28	64	61	6
Independent Study	2	27	63	46	41	8
Programed Instruction	2	4	21	22	133	5
Pupil Conferences with Teacher	7	20	55	62	37	6
Remedial Reading Program	4	18	49	34	67	15
Silent Reading in Class	7	25	72	48	28	7
Team Teaching	4	15	14	15	122	17
Use of Grammar Texts	44	54	59	20	4	6
Use of Multiple Sets of Texts	34	42	34	24	45	8
Use of Reading Laboratory	3	14	30	26	97	17
Use of Single Anthology	61	42	36	22	20	6
Use of Workbooks	10	20	38	43	68	8
Writing in Class	20	57	73	19	6	2

Table 48

Rank Order of Selected Practices Reported
in Widespread or Frequent Use
(n = 187 reports on 107 schools)

Rank	Classroom Practice	Number
1	Use of Single Anthology	103
2	Use of Grammar Texts	98
3	Writing in Class	77
4	Multiple Sets of Books	76
5	Silent Reading in Class	32
6	Use of Workbooks	30
7	Independent Study	29
8	Classroom Book Collections	28
9.5	Pupil Conferences with Teacher	27
9.5	Developmental Reading Program	27
11	Remedial Reading Program	22
12	Team Teaching	19
13	Reading Laboratories	17
14	Programed Instruction	6

Some 83 percent of observers reported that programed instruction was "seldom" or "never" seen; 72 percent reported little or no evidence of team teaching in the schools. Indeed, six practices indicated in Table 46 were reported as "seldom" or "never" used a greater number of times than any practices indicated as "widespread" in Table 47.

With the possible exception of the use of multiple textbooks, ranked four in Table 48, the practices reported as widespread are hardly known to be experimental. This finding is supported by the fact that programed

instruction, team teaching, reading laboratories, and classroom book collections--integral features of many innovative programs today--are ranked as the least frequently observed of any practices. Partially because so few of the 116 original schools were committed to innovative action, a special second phase of the Study directs attention to the teaching of English in those schools which are known to be developing experimental programs (See Chapter XIV).

Table 49

Rank Order of Selected Practices
Reported Infrequently or Never Used
(n = 187 reports on 107 schools)

Rank	Practice	Number Times Mentioned Never or Infrequently Seen
1	Programed Instruction	155
2	Team Teaching	137
3	Classroom Book Collections	125
4	Reading Laboratories	123
5	Use of Workbooks	111
6	Developmental Reading Programs	107
7	Remedial Reading Programs	101
8	Pupil Conferences with Teacher	99
9	Independent Study	87
10	Silent Reading in Class	76
11	Multiple Sets of Books	69
12	Use of Single Anthology	42
13	Writing in Class	25
14	Use of Grammar Texts	24

The summary reactions to all classroom observations, like the reports presented earlier, confirm the overall impression that few unusual, radically different, or highly eccentric tendencies characterize most English programs studied. Moreover, the teaching of English in these schools stresses literature at all levels; reveals its major stress on language in grade ten; relies excessively on recitation, lecture, and discussion in the classroom; tends not to stress innovative practices to any significant extent, yet seems to utilize such a variety of practices to advance English instruction that no one procedure, except the use of class sets of books, characterizes more than half of the observed schools.

Strengths and Weaknesses Identified by Teachers and Counselors

The analyses of observers and the summaries of class visits concerning the strengths and weaknesses of the English programs are supported in all reports but one by the comments of individual teachers. Above everything else, the teachers saw their academic freedom as a quality of considerable importance, but it was one that observers found lacking in all but a very few programs. In all, some 438 teachers were interviewed separately by project staff members, who recorded the teacher's reactions in accordance with directions for administering the interview. The teachers selected for interview tended to be the better teachers in a department--those individuals identified by the principal or department chairman as being the "real strengths" of the staff. On some occasions, however, project staff members chose to interview other teachers, some who expressed interesting and often deviant points of view in the departmental interviews, others whose time schedule made interviewing particularly convenient.

During the interview, teachers were asked to identify the unique

qualities and the weaknesses of the English program in which they were teaching, as well as to suggest desirable changes. Table 50 presents a tabular analysis of the "unique qualities"; Table 51 does the same for the weaknesses.

Table 50

Unique Qualities of the English Department
Identified by Teachers in Interviews
(n = 438)

Rank	Characteristic	Frequency of Mention
1	Academic Freedom (intellectual tone, <u>esprit de corps</u> , freedom to work, etc.	99
2	Quality of the Staff in English	79
3	General Quality of the Program in English	72
4	Program in Composition	37
5	Program in Literature	36
6	Grouping or Tracking of Students	27
7	Quality of Departmental Chairman	23
8	Programs for Advanced Students	19
10	Working Conditions--Load, Clerical Assistance	16
10	Teaching Materials Available	16
10	Quality of School Administration	16
12	Innovation and Experimentation	14
13	Library Facilities	10
14	Programs for Terminal Students	8

Others mentioned: oral English, programs in language, reading, humanities.

The first question directed to the teachers asked: "In what ways do you believe the English program at this high school is unique?" The few teachers who had never taught at any other school (practice teaching excluded) were generally not asked to respond to the question because of their lack of a basis of comparison, although a good number of the teachers interviewed were teachers with less than two years of experience--teachers who had been singled out by the principal and department head (and by observers) more because of their potential than long standing practice.

The most frequent strength cited by interviewees concerned the "atmosphere" surrounding the teaching situation at the school; more specifically, the freedom. Almost one-fourth of the teachers responding mentioned freedom as the unique characteristic of the program--either freedom within some reasonable limits, or freedom with almost no restriction. But the teachers' responses to the question indicated two curiously divergent views: in the one instance, a teacher would reply, "The freedom is great here . . . we meet often, which helps articulation . . ."; and in the other instance, "Freedom is good. There's no snooping here." The latter implies simple freedom from administrative interference with no indication of its effect on other teachers. As indicated earlier in the reports of project observers, this "freedom" from administrative interference which they often praised appeared to the outside observer as little more than anarchy; a lack of clearly defined sequence in program, an absence of cooperation among teachers. To the teachers themselves, it often seemed a strength.

One of the original hypotheses proposed by the project staff was that the teachers in these English programs would have more freedom--more freedom to choose texts, to experiment with new innovations, to teach what they chose when they chose. That is, the staff looked upon teacher freedom as an index

to the professional integrity evident in the teacher himself and, consequently, to be recognized by the administration and the community. More often than not, however, where "freedom" typified but exhausted their responses, it posed more problems than it remedied. Other strengths identified tended to be seen by observers and corroborated by reports of teachers and students. The general quality of the English staff was mentioned as the second most important factor in contributing to the "uniqueness" of the English program. The following comments made by teachers reflect the opinions of observers:

There is stability of the staff, and a solid core of master teachers.

We have a healthy balance between the conservative and the progressive teacher.

There is an extremely well-educated staff, and professional commitment.

Conscientious teachers are alert to new methods. Young teachers lack experience but they want to learn and are eager.

We have some isolated instances of highly resourceful teaching. This is tied up with specific teacher personalities.

We have excellent English teachers. You can have a good program but if you don't have the teachers . . . nothing happens.

Programs in composition and in literature ranked third and fourth in terms of strengths. As observers' reports suggested, the offerings seem noticeably stronger in these two areas than in language, reading, and oral English, which are components of English seldom mentioned as "unique strengths." However, the interviews provided little commentary by teachers to indicate what the evidence is for believing that their teaching of literature is superior. Instead, they talked generally about the wide reading that the students do: "They have freedom to read a broad spectrum of books." Other sets of comments regarded the value of using individual

authors and works in place of the anthology: "We are strong in the approach of teaching individual works; the study guides devised by the department go with the works." Still other comments referred to ideas of unique importance to the school system: "Move chronology one year earlier so that American literature is taught in the tenth grade, British literature in the eleventh, and world literature in the twelfth grade."

The comments related to the composition program were more elaborate. Even though only 10 percent of the teachers responding mentioned the composition program as unique, these teachers seem to feel the program impressive enough to merit special comment:

Probably our requirement for themes is unusual. This depends on the class. Students write; we mark according to style book. We correct the revision with a few student helpers only. Attention to the careful process of revision has been going on here for twenty-five years.

The close articulation, especially in composition, is unique. Everyone must teach what's prescribed when it's prescribed.

We have been developing a clinical approach to writing or moving toward writing clinics.

There is more composition here, more graphs and charts kept on students.

Generally the teachers who commented on the composition programs praised the carefulness with which departmental guidelines had been worked out by members of the department. Again and again in many of the better programs observers found strong support for programs developed in the school, rather than in the district or state. The enthusiasm alone seems to support the contention of the Commission on English of the College Entrance Examination Board, that the best programs are those developed by a consensus of teachers in each school.⁴

⁴ Commission on English, Freedom and Discipline in English (New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1965).

The enthusiasm of teachers also indicated that they were convinced that composition, if part of a carefully articulated program, could be taught and with recognizable results (See Chapter V on "Composition").

The overall program and the articulation of the program received as much favorable comment as literature and language combined, although these comments were usually brief and, unfortunately, often vague. As often as articulation was emphasized, so was diversity of offerings:

We offer more courses here; a more broadening, more diversified program.

We have close articulation between grade levels 10, 11, 12.

We have a definite curriculum aimed at specific objectives.

They integrate the program so that one can expect students have already learned something; we strive for a cumulative effect.

I have never taught where we had such careful planning.

The course of study was worked out over several years.

We do more than most schools about the fusion of literature, language, and composition.

There is continuity in the department. We depend upon a realistic set of policies, experimenting with a firm hand on the traditional.

It is evident from these comments that the teachers were enthusiastic about the program mainly because they felt that they were a part of it--that their hands had been used fruitfully in the preparation of the goals. Only occasionally did the teachers complain that such articulation stifled their efforts to experiment, whereas those teachers who lauded freedom were often heard lamenting the lack of articulation or of specific goals.

Grouping was also praised by many teachers as one of the strong points of the program, but they felt that often the existence of definite tracks created as many problems as it solved. The following comments were offered: "We had one of the first programs to concentrate on gifted."

"Our efforts to pay special attention to basic and terminal students is in contrast to the policy of _____ High School." "English Twelve for slow groups is uncommonly flexible--it is adaptable to individual teachers."

Where working conditions and supply of teaching materials were good, they did not go unnoted by the teachers:

We have good facilities, office space and equipment, and excellent cooperation with the library.

Materials available are varied and helpful. We have many supplementary sets of paperbacks, novels, collections of nonfiction and so on.

We have almost everything imaginable to work with. The office staff does a lot of work. We have a great library. We have no study hall assignments and very few extra assignments.

The school has excellent facilities, especially books and periodicals, good library, and the community has good, well located libraries.

However, where working conditions are unfavorable, they are the bane of teachers; and they are far more likely to be noticed when they consider negative characteristics. About one-fifth of all teachers interviewed reported teaching conditions as a particular weakness of their school, as shown in Table 51. In contrast to project observers who reported other more striking weaknesses, the teachers most often mentioned "poor working conditions." Most of them mentioned many different "imperfections" which would constitute poor working conditions. Thirty-seven teachers singled out teacher-student ratio as a contributory factor; several saw a relation here between this problem and the teacher's inability to require more writing assignments--a complaint lodged out of concern to meet the demands of composition. Several other teachers were dissatisfied with the arrangement of the school day, some of them claiming that a forty minute class period was too short or that a seventy minute period was too long. They also complained of being unnecessarily burdened with assignments such as study halls, homerooms, and other extra duties, although in group interviews with

total departments it became clear that fewer interruptions occurred in these schools than in many others. Concomitant with these major complaints were nine comments stating that the school day lacked either a conference period or a planning period (too often defined by many schools as one and the same). As an extreme example, one school revealed an average student load for English teachers of 168; class periods as long as sixty-eight minutes; five to six classes a day for each teacher; and study hall and activity assignments for each teacher. Fortunately, however, such schools were an exception in this Study.

Table 51

Weaknesses of the Departments of English
Identified by Teachers in Interviews
(n = 438)

Rank	Weakness Identified	Number of Times Mentioned
1	Teaching Conditions (load, lack of time, etc.)	90
2	Quality of Overall English Curriculum	59
3	Quality of English Staff	46
4	Community--School Relations--Pressures, Inability of Schools to Adjust	37
5	Unmotivated Students	30
6	Grouping and Sectioning Policies	28
7	Program for Terminal Students	24
8	Inadequate Departmental Leadership	17
9.5	Inadequate Books and Materials	16
9.5	Lack of Teaching Materials	16
11	Program in Composition	8
12	Program in Literature	8

Others mentioned: program in language, reading, oral English, programs for average students, honors programs.

Some typical comments were:

We need more individual titles

We have no time to talk with other teachers.

We have audio-visual problems. We need more materials downtown, and we find it very hard to get materials.

There is a lack of planning periods and conference periods. We need released time for professional study.

The English teacher's energy is drained in the study hall. We seem to be keeping books [i.e., clerical work] too much for too large classes--over 170 students.

Problems related to the overall program in English were mentioned second in frequency, especially the lack of articulation within the department or the lack of specifically defined objectives--perhaps again, the logical result of the freedom which they praised as one of the school's strengths. Answers were often coupled, as in:

Strength: "Freedom under a loosely organized curriculum."

Weakness: "Same as the strength--that is, each teacher is so free that teachers in subsequent grades can make no safe assumption about skills and few about content."

Strength: "Freedom to experiment . . ."

Weakness: "Failure of coordination within the curriculum; failure to agree upon and state the philosophical aims of the department."

In noting that lack of sequence and articulation was a problem, teachers agreed with the opinion of outside observers. In some schools where control of curriculum was fully established, the teachers admitted its value even though preferring less control: "The control exercised over the teacher is good, but the teacher still chafes under it" or "The structured composition program builds good skills in formal writing but tends to stifle creativity." Other teachers recognized the benefits of a structured program, especially for the inexperienced or poor teacher: "The fact that the program is

relatively unstructured increases the chances of the poor teachers doing a very bad job." The frustration of greeting 130 undetermined entities [students with variable backgrounds in English] at the beginning of each year was also evident: "When talking about tragic figures we've read before [sic], we couldn't go too far because all students had not read the books. Is it too much to ask students to have a common background?"

Since in many schools the success of the program depended on the teacher instead of the curriculum, it was natural that the professional shortcomings of the staff should be mentioned almost as frequently by teachers as by observers. Especially, lack of stability resulting from rapid turnover of new teachers created some critical problems: "There are too many young and inexperienced teachers." "Something has to be done to keep teachers from going elsewhere." On the other hand, a staff with too much stability also caused problems: "Resistance to change in the faculty is everywhere. Works are being taught for no particular reason. Our whole program needs reexamination." And perhaps there is another problem which received tacit response, suggesting why the terminal students are so often slighted: "Staff of would-be college teachers may be trying to convert high school into college."

The teachers also said, as did the observers, that the diffidence of students and, especially, the community were areas of concern. Thirty comments related to the lack of motivation on the part of the students or to the poor quality of the students in general. "Children come in here thinking they can coast by." "Social promotion is getting worse." "The average student should be challenged more." "Students are culturally lacking. They are not interested in good shows. This is a transient community-- there is little cultural background in the home. The community seems middle class, but parents aren't interested." The complaint that parents

had unrealistic attitudes towards college was often heard, more often, of course, in the affluent urban areas and suburbs than elsewhere:

The weakest thing is that too great an emphasis is placed on getting into college.

We have very aggressive parents who want students to go to Eastern schools. They are very concerned with grades.

The problem of working with what are often average students of wealthy parents who expect their children to go to college is very serious. Neither the parents nor the students are willing to recognize limitations in ability.

Teachers were most concerned that the learning process in English was being subordinated to the practical desires of students to get accepted into the "college of their choice."

The teachers were less concerned than observers with a changing academic atmosphere in many places, but such comments did occur: "Our community is changing. The college-oriented tradition causes problems as we try to adjust to this influx of middle-class and lower-middle-class students."

The problem of grouping or tracking was mentioned as a weakness by some teachers in schools where it had just begun or where it had not yet been implemented. But more important was the complaint (by twenty-eight teachers) that the terminal program for the students was inadequate. The project observers were more emphatic in identifying this weakness, but it was obvious to many teachers as well. Either the materials used had shortcomings or the teachers preferred not to teach them, or the program itself was vague and fluid. Only four teachers identified weaknesses in the advanced program, and twice that number found weaknesses in the comprehensive or general program:

The division of practical arts and college prep sometimes cheats the practical arts student.

Too much attention is directed to the academic and not enough to lower ability students. Special education is new, but it may help.

Our program is not honest with reference to the lower one-third of students. Literature is unrealistic but we can't change because of neighborhood thinking in handling the lower one-third.

Teachers for slower students are unavailable. Poor students are slighted.

We try to go too fast in the median groups. There is too much chronology [historical approach to literature] for the average.

Teachers were worried about the fact that the terminal student was being slighted because of emphasis in educating the advanced student; at the same time, however, they reported that attempts to make special provisions met with resistance from the terminals (or slow students) who insisted on using the same books as the generals or even the advanced--thus magnifying an observation by one teacher regarding the school's "honesty" toward the terminal student. Furthermore, the stigma connected with the terminal student often affected teachers who were conscious of their status.

"When I came in, there was a sense of gradation. Teachers moved, like students, from sophomore class to senior class." Under such a rationale, what was true of the old system under heterogeneous grouping is now true to an even higher degree with homogeneous grouping. Teachers can now triple the levels by which they accrue status--from teaching 9C to teaching 12A!

Not surprisingly, the teachers failed to rate departmental and administrative leadership high as a strength or weakness. Unlike the outside observers who were concerned with what department chairman and principal did or did not do, the teachers concentrated more on specific aspects of the program. Yet enough of them mentioned deficiencies in administrative leadership to rank it eighth among weaknesses. Most of their concerns were directed at the principal and the superintendent:

Administrators and the board are not interested in process, but in results. They are unaware of teachers' feelings.

It takes years to get administrative approval for something new-- and this is not always in the case of money either.

An atmosphere of administrative fear has developed in the last five years.

We have strict curriculum control; we have the administration to cope with.

In general, teachers feel that presently the weaknesses in the schools in the Study do not lie in their programs but in things external to their programs, over which they often have no control. In their attitudes they agree only in part with the outside observers who directed much of their criticism at the content and structure of programs, particularly programs in language which are actually unmentioned by teachers. Thus, in their interviews, teachers seem to be saying that it rests with those who can control these outside factors to help the English teachers make their program more effective. No doubt, because teachers of English have a history of being dissatisfied with the status quo, when problems such as poor working conditions and unrealistic community pressures, have been eliminated, their energies may be directed to the problems they can more effectively handle. And it may be significant that when teachers were asked what changes they would make, many talked more about changes in the traditional content, not about changes in working conditions, even though a change in teaching conditions ranked numerically one.

A slightly contrasting portrait of the strengths and weaknesses of the English programs was presented by school counselors, ninety-six of whom (in separate schools) completed a special questionnaire. As Table 52 indicates, they believe that the quality of the teaching staff more than any other factor determines the excellence of the English programs; it

received twice as many mentions as the closest one to it.

Table 52
Strengths Identified by Counselors in Questionnaires
(n = 96)

Rank	Characteristic	Number of Times Mentioned
1	Quality of English staff	28
2	Remedial Program in English	16
3	Preparation of College Bound Students	13
5	Composition Program	12
5	Good Administration	12
5	Overall Curriculum in English	12
7	Outstanding Teachers (named individually)	11
8	Experimental Attitude	9
9	Program in Literature	8
10	Reading Program	4

Others mentioned: grouping 4, library 4, intellectual atmosphere 4, teaching conditions 3, teaching materials 3, preparation in junior high school 2.

Some counselors, like the teachers and outside observers, also praised programs for preparing college bound students, the composition program, and the overall curriculum. However, unlike any other group, enough counselors (16 or 17 percent of those responding) mentioned remedial programs often enough as a strength to rank it second. Except in a few schools visited--by no means sixteen in number--such programs to both observers and teachers appeared as gravely deficient. Thus, to discover that some counselors regard them highly raises serious questions concerning their perception and judgment and suggests their not distinguishing carefully between the quality of an offering and its mere existence.

The counselors also were asked to identify general weaknesses in the English program, but so few were mentioned as not to require special tabulation. Of the ninety counselors, twelve mentioned teaching conditions, twelve mentioned composition programs, and seven the matter of sequence and articulation. There was no other issue receiving more than four mentions.

Certain additional insights into the overall nature of the English programs (summarized in Table 53) were suggested by responses of teachers to the interview question: "What changes would you like to make in the present program?" Not surprisingly, teachers mentioned the need to improve working conditions more than any other factor. The essence of such changes was both smaller student loads and more materials with which to work. Too often observers reported that teachers simply groaned about "more time." The following are typical comments:

We have no time to talk with other teachers.

There are too many people (students). I'm dead all the time.
Too much.

I would like more teacher materials, equipment. Some of these are available but there are great scheduling problems.

Fewer pupils, more planning time.

We have a great chain of command that loses the teacher at the other end.

I would like to change emotional climate. There is too much pressure, tension on students and teachers.

I would like to be relieved of a great deal of clerical busy work, for instance, the collecting for pictures, insurance, etc.

The greatest help would be to reduce the number of students.

But teaching conditions are by no means the only change which concerns teachers. Many more directed attention to the problems of general and specific programs. In literature, teachers wanted more modern literature,

Table 53

Changes in the English Department Most
Desired by Individual Teachers
(n = 438 interviews)

Rank	Characteristic	Number of Times Mentioned
1	Improve Teaching Conditions (load, time)	53
2	Change Language Program	45
3	Improve Sequence and Coordination	43
4	Change Literature Program	39
5	Change Composition Program	38
6	Add Specific Courses	31
7	Change Offerings for Terminal Students	29
8	Make Available More Books and Materials	27
9	Improve Grouping or Tracking	24
10	Change Offerings in Oral English	19
11.5	Define Purpose of English More Clearly	16
11.5	Better Teachers of English	16

Others mentioned: change offering for average 15; reduce crowded curriculum 14; introduce humanities approach 14; more intellectual freedom 13; lay readers 5; department chairman 5; programs for advanced student 5.

less use of anthologies, more emphasis on individual texts. In composition, teachers talked of better articulation, more writing and more time to grade writing assignments. Even more numerous responses were recorded about language in one form or another; more teachers (18) wanted some revision in the teaching of traditional language than wanted implementation of linguistics (13). Only ten teachers wanted to de-emphasize traditional language, and four wanted less of linguistics. But what emerges is an even greater concern among teachers for each leg of the "tripod" of English.

Worth noting here is the attention the teachers direct to improving their work in language, an indication that they are not completely oblivious to the deficiency seen by observers.

In literature, teachers hope to make learning more meaningful--too often they feel that to encompass a great many selections precludes close reading of the texts, and that all the students receive is a smattering of literature without any hope of a real understanding of how a poem operates, for example. Some of their typical comments were:

I wish there were a plan that would develop an awareness of historical continuity (somewhat).

I would like a wider choice of books.

The literature program, though good, detracts from the writing program.

The purpose of a year needs definition, especially in literature.

Some evaluation is needed of certain individual literary choices in terms of what these books improperly handled can do to children.

The course in literature is so overloaded that present breadth prevents depth study.

It might be time to evaluate our course of study. We may be tending to discuss literature too much.

Although the comments on the shortcomings in the literature program seem to be spread over a hospital full of ills, the responses to the question concerning composition follow a more definitive pattern, readily recognized by the observers who visited the schools:

Perhaps a professional composition teacher is needed, one who would teach composition exclusively.

Composition needs more work. We as teachers ought to be taught to teach composition.

I feel the need to teach writing, but I get so bogged down with other things that writing gets slighted. I write a paragraph to each student and have conferences every six weeks.

More writing is needed, but we have too many students.

We need a greater sense of sequence between years, especially in composition Presently we are trying to cover too much material at some levels.

The writing program should be articulated.

Individual comments concerning the teaching of language were variable:

I would correlate the high school better with the junior schools. Some students have grammar, some don't.

I would like to see more teachers working on the structural linguistics approach to language. Right now Mrs. _____ and I are the only ones teaching it, and this limits the possibilities to our four classes only.

I would like to see the linguistic study of language adopted throughout the school system.

Currently we teach grammar only from errors which have been made in papers. I would like a separate review of grammar. Have it all taught at once, and we can then refer students to errors in the handbook.

I'm not satisfied with grammar. We need something to stimulate students, like linguistics.

I would change the whole grammar program to linguistics.

The approach to grammar should be standardized. There should be more agreement regarding structural linguistics approach.

Teachers seemed generally displeased with the learn-as-you-go approach to the teaching of language. Rather, they wanted some type of formal introduction to language (at what grade levels varied) so that they could refer to it as the semester progressed. Many were interested in the newer grammars; but few were informed. In any case, teachers seemed bewildered about how to approach the language problem, and there did not seem to be any relationship between the strengthening or lessening of it and the paucity or plethora of language offering in the schools.

The changes most often mentioned in regard to overall curriculum in English involved two interests. First of all, the desire for a better

articulated program was implicit in comments by everyone in and out of the schools; secondly, they desired to define better the goals of the program lest the English teacher remain forever "all things to all men." Some of their remarks follow:

We are doing so many different things. Perhaps we should define more clearly what we are to do in teaching English.

I would like to know what goes on in Junior and Senior years. There should be a syllabus revised every year for every level that each teacher can examine in order to avoid duplication.

We need to revise our program so that we are not all things to all people.

The present program needs linguistics, needs sequential composition, needs masterpieces and genre studied in depth.

We are trying too much--spreading ourselves too thin. We try writing, thinking, speech, vocabulary, ideas, values, etc., etc. I would like to see English centered in a single area, systematized perhaps--but--still--it's not possible to cut out any one area. All these things are necessary but they lead inevitably to too little time generally to work. The happy medium is difficult to strike.

More specialization for teacher and more intensive study of limited number of things until students thoroughly master it.

The burden of these remarks is immediately clear: the English teacher in many schools still seems to picture himself as a linguistic jack-of-all-trades. But the lack of time available for the teacher to become, instead, an effective jack-of-some-trades indicates clearly that something will have to be done on both ends of the scale.

Summaries of group interviews with 115 separate departments of English also yield certain information as to the dominant strengths and weaknesses of these English programs. The group interviews were held under somewhat diverse conditions, attended after school by the department chairman and sometimes the principal as well. The rapport in some departments was such that the participants talked freely; in others the atmosphere

was stilted and non-communicative, although frequently the very failure of a department as a whole to express its joint opinions prompted individual teachers in private interviews to speak freely, even somewhat defensively about the concerns of the school. Still the group interviews yielded many important insights into the nature of the English program.

They revealed, for example, that despite complaints to observers from individual teachers, the principals in the schools are making a determined attempt not to interrupt academic classes--whether for counseling, testing, or other purposes. In 80 percent of the schools, teachers report that interruptions either are no great problem or that the situation is "far better than in other schools."

Similarly, contests do not seem to interfere with instruction in English, as some half of the schools rely on guidelines, often those set down by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals attempting to regulate student participation, and the majority of the remaining schools assume the responsibility to be with the classroom teacher.

Speech, logic and "straight" thinking, and reading are definitely accepted as the responsibilities of English departments, according to the group interviews; although having admitted this fact (as did at least two-thirds of the departments), individuals were sorely pressed to account for their exact place in the instruction program. Like the project observers who saw relatively little teaching in these areas, the teachers could identify few specific lessons organized primarily to teach these skills. Rather, the teachers claimed to "do it all the time," or "whenever I can," or "always in correcting themes." But those skills "always taught" are too often never really taught; thus, the failure to designate clear-cut responsibility perhaps more than anything else reveals a lack of genuine concern.

On other topics departments agreed strongly with the reports of classroom observation: the schools plan virtually nothing on the study of mass media beyond occasional reference to a passing program in a lecture or discussion. Writing assignments tend to evolve from literary studies, but only if "literature" is "broadly interpreted" do teachers agree that such assignments should do this. Many believe that writing assignments should be diversified and include, particularly for slow classes, writing about personal experience.

When asked if they devoted as much as 50 percent of their time to the teaching of composition, teachers tended to hedge or laugh because, for most of them, the demands of current assignments preclude such emphasis. After some extended discussion, however, most faculties reached a consensus that perhaps they, if not their students, did spend that much time on the composition program: some suggested that if composition is "broadly interpreted" to include the complete process of composing (discussion, writing, revision, correction, related exercises in language), they do indeed spend as much as 50 percent of the time in this area. But clearly most teachers were aware that they were rationalizing. If the majority failed to perceive how little time was actually devoted to this aspect of the program (See discussion in Chapter V), the majority also seemed to know that far less than half the teaching time was devoted to written composition.

The departments were asked whether they had taken a position on the introduction of modern literature in English classes, a question which elicited a wide divergence of opinion. In essence, departments felt their present offerings were "balanced," and although some teachers desired more modern literature than at present, almost an equal number seemed to ask for less.

Of all the questions leveled at the departments, one of them obliquely forced teachers to reveal in concrete ways certain of their attitudes concerning English instruction. The question was: "If your department were given a substantial increase in the annual budget, say three or four thousand dollars, how would you best like to spend it?" The implications of their various expressions of need are discussed more fully in relation to the need for instructional material later in this report (See Chapter XI), but certain major program deficiencies are clearly apparent here. As Table 54 indicates, films and recordings do emerge first in terms of frequency, but five of the first twelve most frequent requests are for books. The finding confirms reports from

Table 54

Ways in Which English Departments Would Most
Likely Spend Supplementary Funds
(n = 115 departments)

Rank	Item	Number of Times Mentioned
1	Recordings	31
2	Films, Motion Pictures	30
3	Textbooks	28
4	Supplementary Books	26
5.5	Overhead Projectors	24
5.5	Clerical or Secretarial Help	24
7	Dictionaries (usually class sets)	22
8	Lay Readers	21
9	Paperbacks	19
10	Classroom Book Collections	18
11.5	Part-time Teachers	17
11.5	Record Players	17

observers that even these highly regarded English programs often suffer from an inadequate supply of books and supplementary materials. In more of these programs than not, teaching is adversely affected by a shortage of books.

The interviews with teachers and departments, supplemented by questionnaires from counselors, thus confirm reports from staff observers that literature and composition receive primary attention in the schools and are among the strengths of many. The program in language, on the other hand, is far from satisfactory and requires attention, as does the overall coordination and sequence of studies in English.

The teachers understandably expressed more concern about inadequate teaching conditions than did project observers. And teachers are far less concerned about the inadequacies of departmental leadership, even though such leadership, if available, could perhaps do much to avert many problems in coordination, in shortage of books, and, perhaps, in teaching conditions. Rather the teachers prize--far more than the observers--their freedom to decide what to teach and how to teach--albeit some say this freedom on occasion borders on anarchy. Perhaps such freedom can be used skillfully in the hands of competent teachers, and the teachers themselves, the counselors, and the observers agree overall that the genuine quality of the English faculty is one of the distinguishing characteristics of these schools.

Strengths and Weaknesses Identified by Students

Important in assessing the English programs of 116 schools was the information gained from students through several sources. In ninety-nine of the 116 schools, observers interviewed and passed out written questionnaires to twelfth grade students in college bound or honors courses.

Students articulate about their experiences and inclined to respond freely. In some fifty schools, group interviews were arranged as well with below average or slow tenth grade groups, students who had just entered most programs; but these interviews seemed to yield fewer insights into the nature of school programs either because of the limited verbal ability of the students or their lack of experience in the school. In addition, personal reports were secured on the high school experiences of 124 selected college students, each honored at graduation from one of the 116 schools as an NCTE Achievement Award Winner for excellence in English.

The reports from superior twelfth grade students are further verification of the strength of programs in literature and composition in many of these schools. Table 55 indicates that as many students distinguished these areas in English as "most beneficial" as mentioned all other areas combined. Nevertheless, the reports also indicate the concern of students with particular learnings and skills: grammar, vocabulary, reading skill, and the research paper were all singled out for commendation.

But the same senior students were not completely satisfied with their English programs. On questionnaires administered during the interviews, some 2,317 also suggested changes in the composition and literature programs which they had rated so highly. The various kinds of curriculum changes suggested by these students are presented in Table 56.

Almost two-thirds of the seniors desiring more or better work in composition specified more creative writing, an interest reflected both by the enthusiasm of students enrolled in programs where such work was permitted and by the remembered experiences of college graduates. Indeed so ardent were they for more creative experiences of this kind that perhaps the schools in this Study have given such writing short shrift. (See

further discussion on this point in Chapter V). In literature, students recommended more attention to modern literature, some 195 asking for this change compared with fifty-five requesting more classics. Ranking third in number of student requests was language study, which both students and teachers readily interpret as largely grammar. But students clearly want "better" grammar, not necessarily more; indeed, language (grammar) ranks first in the subjects which able students assert that they would like to study less. Like the project observers--even like many teachers in these

Table 55

Aspects of English Reported Most Beneficial
By Twelfth Grade College Preparatory Classes
(n = 99 classes)

Rank	Characteristic	Number of Times Mentioned
1	Literature	60
2	Composition	39
3	Grammar	17
4	Discussion	15
5	Vocabulary	14
6	Individual Reading	12
7	Reading Skill	8
8	Research Paper	8
8	Creative Writing	8
11	Poetry Study	6
11	Quality of Teachers	6
11	Honors or AP Work	6

Also mentioned: philosophy 5; panels 4; great books 4; essay examinations 5; drama 3; study of authors 2; mythology 2; thinking 2; combined studies 2.

Table 56

Curriculum Changes Suggested by
Twelfth Grade Advanced Students
(n = 2,317 students)

	Area	More or Better	Less
1	Composition	338	12
2	Literature	287	64
3	Language	226	130
4	Reading Program	197	11
5	Class Discussion	71	4
6	Vocabulary	62	5
7	Ability Grouping	30	1
8	Better Teachers	24	0
9	Speech	23	1
10	More Intensive Study	16	3
11	Student-Teacher Ratio	17	0
12	Censorship	0	11
	Satisfied with Current System	248	11

schools--students seem to find the programs in language, to be repetitious and inconsequential. Reading programs also would be subjected to change if these senior students had their way, but here the change means providing more books and more diversified reading materials. Concurring with the teachers in these schools, the same students suggest that they are too often restricted by a short supply of worthwhile titles for personal reading.

The impressions gleaned from superior (or college bound) twelfth grade students were reinforced by correspondence with the 124 Award winners enrolled in programs of higher education. Correspondence with these outstanding English students (of which there were thirty-four freshmen, thirty-five

sophomores, and fifty juniors or seniors) was initiated early in the Study to assist the project staff in identifying critical variables.

With respect to their high school preparation in English, ninety-one students (74 percent) affirmed that their programs seemed above average compared with those of their friends. Similarly, seven students to every one student thought their preparation for college composition was above average. Three-quarters of the group attributed their sufficient writing strength to their particular training in high school.

Of the major aspects of their high school English receiving heaviest criticism, grammar was again at the top of the list. Forty-three of them cited grammar as that phase of English which had received too much emphasis in their training. Other aspects of English appeared only sparingly in their responses, literature ranking second but far down the list. Contrarily, the college students were more preoccupied with areas receiving too little emphasis; speech was first with thirty-seven citations. Other areas mentioned as receiving too little emphasis were: composition, thirty-five; literature, thirty-one; reading, eighteen; and grammar, fourteen. It may be significant that only one student in this select group stated that reading received too much emphasis, whereas eighteen (about 14 percent) expressed the opposite opinion.

English programs for terminal students tend to emphasize too much study of grammar, mechanics, spelling, and writing. Students repeatedly mentioned such emphases as "parts of speech," "diagraming," and ordinary "drill." (Twenty-three of the fifty summaries specifically refer to "grammar"; ten others mention "mechanics"--or punctuation and capitalization; and fifteen mention "spelling.") Other data had suggested that for all students the emphasis on grammar and language study occurs at an early stage

in their secondary education. Thus the emphasis revealed here in student responses may reflect the age and grade level as well as the nature of terminal classes. Nevertheless, the summaries suggest that there is an overwhelming stress on mechanical analysis of textbook sentences as well as principles of formal grammar--but comparatively little stress on ideas.

The nature of their writing experience as reported by tenth grade terminal classes seems to be largely mechanical, too. There was seldom any reference to the content of their writing; more frequently the tenor of the activity was reflected by such phrases as we write "paragraphs once a week," "condense sentences," or answer "questions from Practical English." It was all too clear to observers that the students, rather than indicating warmth and appreciation for such assignments, reacted negatively or at least indifferently toward English.

Reading skills also received their attention. Some seventeen of the fifty classes reported stress on reading, which may reflect traditional junior high school stress upon the teaching of comprehension. According to these students, literature appears to receive comparatively little stress as literature in terminal classes. What literary study was recalled seemed handled more through individual reading than through class assignment, according to this report. Only in two or three classes were students reported as saying they have been "taught" selections--and then the selections are the traditional Julius Caesar or The Merchant of Venice. Some thirteen classes, however, mentioned oral book reports and two others mentioned written book reports.

In general, then, the program for tenth grade terminals--their present programs and their recollections of their junior high school experiences, seems not to emphasize literature, but to concentrate on drills, workbooks, grammar and usage, and writing exercises.

The reports from tenth and twelfth grade students, as well as from selected college students who formerly attended the schools, offers evidence in corroboration with that presented in the earlier sections of the chapter. The study of both literature and composition dominates the high school program, especially for the superior or college bound student, and the principle of success guarding the program is inextricably related to these two large aspects of the subject. The program in language, on the other hand, is characterized by an over-emphasis on grammar and usage, a repetitious pattern of instruction, and an overly mechanical result which more noticeably affects the non-college bound student. Other reactions from students suggest that greater effort be expended in teaching slower students basic reading skills. The major weakness of the composition program is characterized by the limited attention to creative writing; in literature, the general dearth of more modern selections is of greatest concern to students.

Summary

A broad, cumulative analysis by the project staff, supported by classroom observation, by interviews with individual teachers, and by group interviews with departments of English and selected tenth and twelfth grade classes provide a comprehensive view and assessment of English programs in 116 schools reported to be achieving important results in English. The assessment also serves to delineate a number of common characteristics:

- (1) effective and intelligent leadership on the part of school administrators and departmental chairmen;
- (2) general competence and excellence of English faculties;
- (3) adequate resources in books and instructional materials;
- (4) reasonable teaching conditions.

Most likely because project observers are in a position to view with

some degree of objectivity the potential of many school staffs, they regarded adequate departmental leadership more highly than did the respective teachers, many of whom presumably had never been exposed to the influence of a competent chairman both benefited by time and granted larger responsibility to fulfill his important function. On their part, teachers valued most highly the atmosphere of professional freedom which left to the individual teacher the natural responsibility of deciding what to teach and how to teach. However, to some observers and to some teachers, such freedom might at times be viewed as bordering on anarchy. Therefore, provisions for establishing more instead of less direction is recommended in the majority of schools.

The English curriculums in these 116 schools, according to teachers and students as well as project observers, showed a lack of sequential structure; moreover, in the broad area of language, there is an apparent lack of agreement on content, emphasis, and sequence. Some schools circumvent this problem by wholly ignoring certain or all phases of instruction in language.

Literature received stronger emphasis in the classroom than all other aspects of English, therefore accounting for reports of the higher quality of instruction in literature, especially in programs for college bound students. Programs of instruction in composition also elicited praise. In both cases, the evidence accumulated everywhere indicates far greater certainty among schools concerning the what and how of literature and composition than in other aspects of English.

If language instruction seems to receive only uncertain attention, other aspects of English receive even less in the classroom. Despite their claiming an interest in such matters, teachers were negligent in the

teaching of speech and reading in the classroom. The study of mass media, perhaps not yet a legitimate aspect of the English program, received virtually no attention. Hence the focus, quite clearly, is on the teaching of literature and the writing of composition.

Project reports also verify that, in these schools at least, innovations with scheduling and teaching procedure are comparatively unimportant. As expected, the teachers achieve orthodox results through reliance on discussion, recitation, and lecture, supported by independent study and some oral presentation. Radical attempts to experiment with scheduling or to use other modern study gimmicks are hardly evident; where introduced they seem less important for what they contribute to effectiveness of instruction than for what they contribute to school atmosphere. A lively, intellectual or academic climate that is characteristic of many schools was, more often than not, set either by the building principal or by the tradition of the community. The unique quality of the students--whether upper middle class children from wealthy suburban areas or less well-to-do city or small town children in comprehensive schools--seems less important than advancement of the tradition of learning. Such traditions are established and perpetuated by parental ambitions, but they do not automatically emerge in every suburban area.

In their final assessment of the English programs, project observers were instructed to rank each program on sixteen different dimensions, based on a seven point scale ranging from outstanding to inadequate as summarized in Table 57. The results not only indicate the diversity of the programs, but also certain central characteristics of the schools. The highest mean ranking--3.0 on the seven point scale--represents the presence in the schools of "certain unique teachers" who raise the level of instruction.

Table 57

Observer Ratings of English Programs on Selected Characteristics
(n = 181 cumulative ratings of 116 programs)

	Rating Scale							No Reports	Mean Ratings
	Excellent	←	→	Inadequate					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Variety in Teaching Method	4	20	45	34	43	28	5	2	4.1
Variety in Teaching Material	5	18	42	29	35	44	7	1	4.6
Student Response in Discussion	7	21	56	39	34	17	2	5	3.7
Teacher Leadership in Discussion	5	18	54	35	50	15	1	3	3.9
Emphasis on Ideas in Literature	5	36	60	36	21	12	5	6	3.4
Well Stocked Library	19	40	38	30	28	10	3	3	3.3
Intellectual Climate in School	15	25	52	33	18	19	4	5	3.6
Frequent, Varied Composition	9	35	39	35	28	19	2	4	3.7
Coordination of Language, Literature, Composition	7	26	46	26	33	24	12	7	4.1
Appropriate Sequence and Proportion in Program	5	23	39	34	39	24	9	8	4.1
Effective Program in Reading	2	21	25	20	20	54	31	7	4.5
Effective Department Chairman	24	25	29	16	19	32	30	6	4.1
Support by School Administration	19	42	35	32	28	10	2	3	3.3
Quality of Teachers--Some Outstanding	31	50	37	33	14	8	3	5	3.0
Curriculum for Terminals	3	9	23	31	32	49	27	7	4.8
Curriculum Reflects Changing Conditions	7	20	24	42	33	29	13	3	4.4

In 118 of 176 cumulative reports, the contributions of such teachers are significant enough to receive a ranking in the first three categories. In

contrast, the lowest mean ranking--4.8--represents programs for the terminal student, an overriding weakness in many school programs. In 108 of 181 reports, the programs for terminal students were assigned one of three lowest ranks; in only 35 reports were such programs rated 3.0 or higher.

A more graphic way of portraying the strengths and weaknesses observed by the project staff is presented in Figure No. 5, which lists different sets of ratings most frequently assigned to each of sixteen characteristics. In ten of sixteen dimensions, a majority of the 116 English programs were judged to be especially strong; that is, the most frequently assigned rating was higher than the mid-point rating of four. Here are the dimensions by rank which were most relevant to these schools: (1) intellectual climate of the school; (2) quality of English teachers; (3) support of the program by building administrators; (4) use of a variety of methods; (5) quality of student response in discussion; (6) teacher's leadership in discussion; (7) emphasis on ideas in literature; (8) size and accessibility of the library; (9) varied program in composition; (10) reasonable coordination of language, literature, and composition. Compared, then, with the average schools, the programs observed by the project staff seemed stronger in these respects.

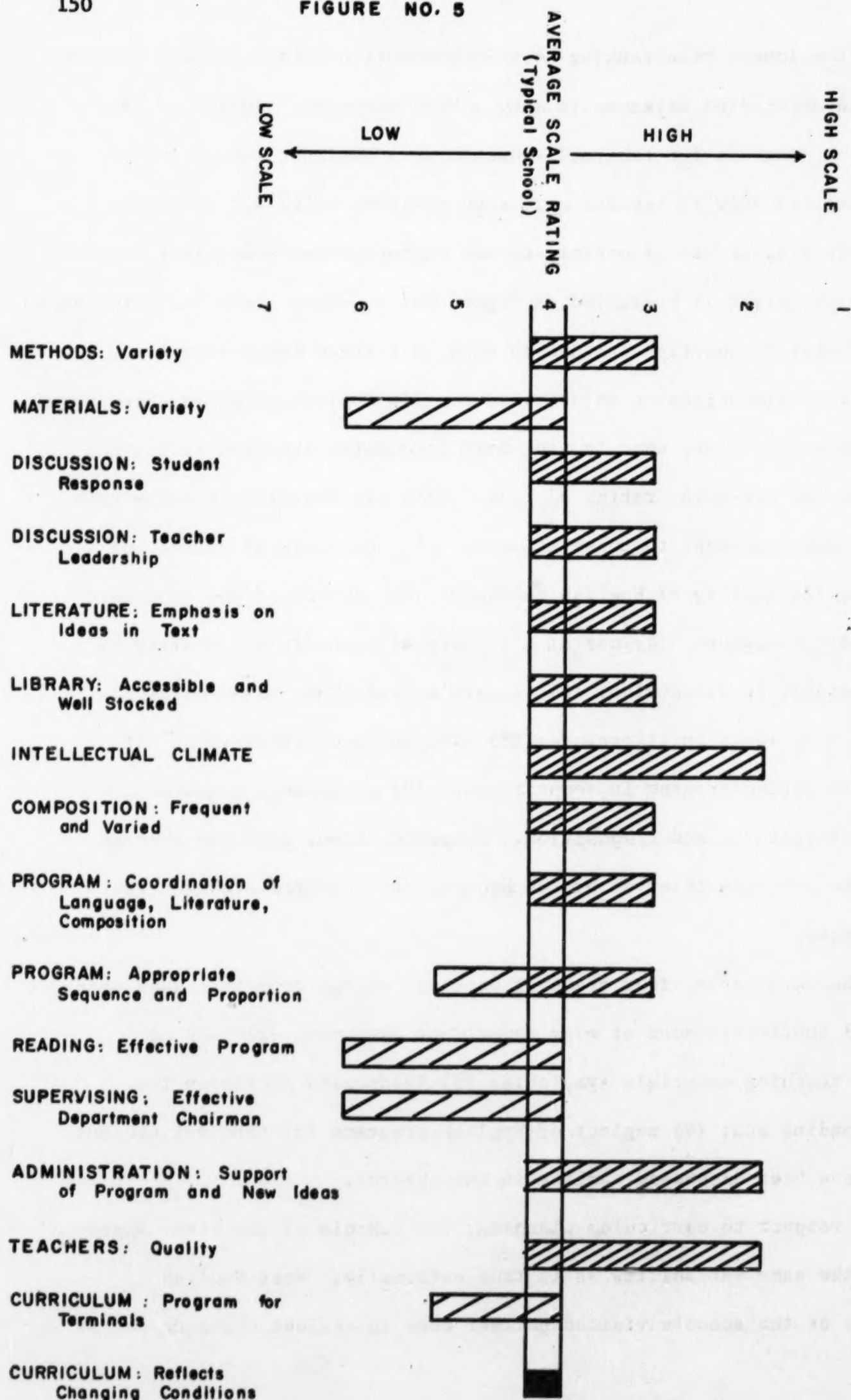
On the same scale, four areas of weakness emerge from this assessment: (1) general ineffectiveness of many department chairmen; (2) lack of variety of teaching materials available; (3) inadequate provision for teaching reading and; (4) neglect of English programs for terminal students. All four have been discussed earlier in the chapter.

With respect to curriculum planning, the schools of the Study appeared to reveal the same variability as is true nationally. Most English curriculums at the schools visited neither seem to reflect changing social

FIGURE NO. 5

Most Frequent Rating of Schools on Selected Characteristics

(n=107 schools reported on by 187 observers)



and cultural conditions, nor do they ignore change. Thus, the average program apparently seemed undistinguished in this respect. On the other hand, schools experience so much variable success in determining appropriate sequence and proportion in English studies that as many were cited for excellence in this respect as were found to be experiencing problems.

The overall characteristics of outstanding English programs have been reported in this chapter as they were identified. Perhaps the most distinguishing quality revealed by the departments is their great variability, although a large number shared a few common characteristics. As this summary indicates, as many as twenty or twenty-five identifiable factors are integrally related to the excellence of English programs. There was no single school studied by staff members which reflected all these characteristics, even though many shared several characteristics--the variability of staff, students, and local conditions. This finding, then, perhaps offers encouragement to those departments which, for a variety of reasons, find that emulating all recommended practices is an almost impossible task. There is lastly this suggestion that many good departments could grow even stronger should they find possible ways to direct attention to areas of present neglect.

CHAPTER IV

THE TEACHING OF LITERATURE

Strong and effective programs for the teaching of literature are characteristic of many of the schools visited by project observers. Not only does 52.2 percent of all classroom time emphasize literature (Chapter III, Table 38), but much of this time was judged by observers to be well spent. Programs in literature ranked 5.5 among the overall strengths cited by observers, who identified thirty-three programs as outstanding (Chapter III, Table 36); however, literature programs were also ranked 11.5 in inadequacy by the same observers (Chapter III, Table 37). Other available evidence supports the contention that in at least some of the schools the teaching of literature is a particular strength. For in interviews of some 438 teachers, the teaching of literature was mentioned fifth most frequently as a strength, almost as frequently as programs in composition were mentioned (Chapter III, Table 48). Of more significance was the testimony of sixty of sixty-nine twelfth grade classes of college bound students that their literature programs were more beneficial than any other aspect of English (Chapter III, Table 55). And in conjunction with this survey, the concept check list administered to both department chairmen and students indicated that considerably more attention is devoted to the full understanding of concepts in literature than to concepts identified with language or rhetoric and composition. Results of this check list also indicate that more than 95 percent of all students are instructed in the understanding of such concepts as connotation, alliteration, metaphor, blank verse, allusion, epic, satire, analogy, paradox, and allegory (Chapter III, Table 42). The conclusive indication, then, according to data collected by observation, interview, and questionnaire, is that programs of literature tend to be more

extensive, more carefully organized, and more effective than other aspects of English instruction.

This is not to say, however, that the programs are universally excellent, that students and teachers did not express some complaints, or that project observers were satisfied with the quality of instruction. Despite the high ranking of such programs in comparison with other aspects of English, only thirty-three observers (in 218 reports on 117 schools) cited the teaching of literature as outstanding. Observers testify that in this aspect of English, as elsewhere, the individual teacher rather than the school program is to be singled out for distinction; and not infrequently the superb and the mundane are found back to back in the same building. Observers also report considerable variation in the purposes and methods of instruction.

As evidenced by reports, the strong commitment of these programs to literary studies conflicts sharply with the frequently voiced concern of college critics who fear that some school programs are so "skill centered" that English becomes regarded merely as a "tool" subject and the content of literature receives short shrift. But most project observers, in deference to this point, conceded that the generally sufficient emphasis on literature observed in these schools may be one of the unique characteristics of school programs which graduate outstanding students in English.

The Purposes of Literary Study

Despite their obvious commitment to literature, teachers of English seem to have reached no clear consensus concerning the purposes of instruction in literature. In more than a few schools the assumptions underlying overall means and ends are too seldom examined. Observers reported individual teachers who clearly understood whether they were

teaching literature as human experience, as imaginative illumination, as recorded spiritual history, even as moral or aesthetic value, but there were few departments that had reached such a consensus. Observers, however, reacted positively toward a departmental philosophy which was both understood and accepted by the teachers. Thus, in one school, teachers approached literature as creative expression, as a reflection of man's ability to shape his ideas through language; in another school, literature as reflecting the human condition dominated their approach; still in another school, they seemed to stress perception of aesthetic form. Of greater concern to observers, however, than the dominance of a single point of view--a dominance not infrequently questioned--was the commitment to purpose inherent in such programs, the deep recognition by a single faculty as a unified whole that literature contributes essentially to the education of each student. "Every teacher seems to believe," said one observer, "and to teach as though he believed--in the necessity of teaching communication and literary analysis, the meat and potatoes of literary study I have been in five schools now, and this is the first one in which I felt that the approaches to literature in the classroom were really in line with modern textual analysis and modern critical approaches." It is this inner conviction of the importance of literature which seems to be the corollary of clear understanding of purpose, and it is too often lacking in English departments. Indeed, observers' criticism verifies that many schools are teaching literature without real purpose, owing partly to their excessive reliance on external examinations--examinations too often designed by the teacher as factually-oriented, routinized, intellectualized approximations of Advanced Placement tests, or statewide or district-wide examinations. It was noted that where assessment rather than learning dominated departmental thinking, both teachers and students tended to care less about the value of

literary study than about surmounting the ultimate hurdles.

Teachers do seem to recognize that the first contribution of literature is to the intellectual and emotional development of young people. Table 57 indicates that some 102 English chairmen, when asked to rank purposes in teaching literature, overwhelmingly chose "Student's Development Through Literature" as the major objective of school programs in literature. Regrettably, however, the question offered no insight into the kind of development to which many see literature as contributing. An important secondary purpose in their selection was "Student's Ability to Comprehend the Meaning and Development of a Particular Work." Other purposes dealing with literary tradition, with literature as art, and with students' aesthetic response were seldom rated as important.

The ideas impressed in literature clearly are seen to contribute to the personal development of students. As observers indicated in their overall impressions, the programs generally emphasize the ideas in literature more than do average school programs (Chapter III, Chart 1). Indeed, according to observers, the emphasis on thematic or idea-centered instruction is equaled only by the concern with literary history. As Table 58 reveals, these emphases, rather than ethics and morality or social documentation, seemed to dominate classroom teaching.

The data in Tables 59 and 60 and other reports by observers of classroom teaching may seem momentarily to conflict with the approaches to the teaching of literature reported on questionnaires of department chairmen. Whereas historical and chronological emphases were widely reported, neither is regarded as a dominant approach by department chairmen (Table 58). Indeed, aside from a perceptible increase in emphasis on chronology in grades eleven and twelve (where surveys of American and English literature are widespread),

Table 58

Objectives in Teaching Literature as
Ranked by Department Chairmen
(n - 102 reports)

Objectives	Ranking by Chairmen		
	#1	#2	#3
Student's Development Through Literature	62	23	10
Student's Ability to Comprehend the Meaning and Development of a Particular Work	24	20	22
Student's Acquaintance with Literary Tradition	9	32	31
Student's Aesthetic Response and Appreciation	6	19	21
Student's Understanding of Literature as Art	1	6	15
No Response	<u>0</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>
Total	102	102	102

Table 59

Emphasis in Literature Programs Reported by Observers
(n - 107 schools reported by 187 observers)

	Much in Evidence, Widespread	Frequent Use by Some	Occasional Use	Infrequent Use	No Evidence of Use
Thematic or Idea-Centered Teaching of Literature	21	48	64	31	15
Emphasis on Literary History	22	47	62	27	19
Emphasis on Literature as Social Documentation	4	27	74	53	21
Emphasis on Morals to Be Gleaned from Literature	5	32	71	45	22

programs in literature seen rather eclectic. This fact is substantiated by figures in Table 61 which rate the relative importance of approaches as indicated on questionnaires of 1,331 teachers. Although not one of the nine separate approaches is regarded as unimportant, it seems likely that an emphasis on ideas in a single work, on genre, on close textual study, and on

Table 60

The Prevalent Approach to the Teaching of Literature,
as Reported by Department Chairmen
(n = 101 reports)

Type of Approach	Grade 10*	Grade 11	Grade 12	Total Number of Mentions
Thematic	20	17	18	55
Types of Literature	63	47	42	152
According to Anthology	25	16	21	62
Chronological	6	53	54	113
Selected Authors	19	26	30	75

*Totals exceed 101 because some approaches were marked twice at each grade level.

Table 61
Importance of Selected Approaches to the Teaching
of Literature Indicated by Teachers
(n = 1,331 teachers)

Approach to Literature	Percentage of teachers specifying				
	Great Importance	Some Importance	Little Importance	No Importance	Decline To Say
Thematic	32	47	14	4	3
Periods	22	55	17	3	3
Chronological	25.5	49	19	4	2.5
Genre	55	38	4	.3	2.7
Ideas in Single Works	68	27	3	.2	1.8
Close Textual Study	54	34	8	1	3
Works Grouped by Author	31	54	11	1	3
Biographical	10	51	31	4	4
Guided Individual Reading	50	39	7	1	3

guided individual reading predominates in the thinking of many teachers. Curiously, thematic emphasis receives far less support than does the emphasis on idea, perhaps because teachers associate attention to theme with organization of thematic units. Of all the approaches, the emphasis on biography and chronology appears to receive the least support despite the fact that a great number of eleventh and twelfth grade programs were organized in this way. Ideas, of course, can be emphasized in individual texts, in studies of literary genre, in the writings of individual authors; such stress need not be limited to thematic or idea-centered units, however supportive such a method of organizing literary study may seem. Indeed, despite the emphasis on ideas noted by observers, thematic approaches were mentioned less frequently by departmental chairmen than any other. However, on the issues questionnaire administered to 1,481 teachers of English, some 41.1 percent agreed with the statement, "A literature program in which selections are grouped around topics or themes offers the best approach to developing permanent appreciation." Only 24 percent disagreed; 34.9 percent were undecided. Clearly, then, teachers are ambivalent. Literary history received stronger support on this questionnaire. As many as 60.7 percent of all teachers agreed that "Students need to study the history of literature so that they may better understand the current trends in literature." (About 19 percent disagreed and 20 percent were undecided.)

In observing programs, however, the patterns of organization and emphasis seemed to make less difference than the contact with literature which each experience offers. One observer reported advanced students closely involved in a thematic study of alienation and the search for identity in such works as Conrad's The Secret Sharer, Graham Green's A Burnt Out Case, and selections from Kafka, Dostoyevsky, and even Bertolt Brecht. Another observer was excited by the study of tragedy through

reading Oedipus Rex, Macbeth, Jude the Obscure, and J. B. Even a chronologically-oriented unit on "Theological Backgrounds of American Literature" seemed to one observer to possess real merit. Far more important than any pattern of organization is the depth and quality of each class's experience with literature. Such moments of impact are possible within any overall pattern of organization. But observers found also possible an evasion of literary study, of contact with individual texts, of direct experience in literature. Quite often such lack of concern with literature was found in classes oriented deliberately around historical or biographical matters.

Few new sequential patterns for organizing literary study were uncovered. The patterns familiar to most American teachers were common in these schools--thematic or typological study in Grades 9 and 10, American literature in Grade 11, English literature or world literature in Grade 12. Variations on this pattern saw some schools moving world literature to Grade 10, or perhaps American to that level followed by a year of English and a year of world literature. Such tampering with familiar categories and sequences seems unlikely to result in more effective programs. The study of American literature seems likely to continue almost everywhere at the junior level, albeit somewhat less emphasis is being placed on the early backgrounds and somewhat more on twentieth century writers.

The ninth and tenth grade programs apparently admit more innovation, particularly with literary content. Here programs emphasizing the major genre or modes of literature are receiving some successful experimentation. What radical changes are occurring in these schools are found primarily at the senior level, where observers found several elective courses open to students: English literature, modern literature, world literature,

humanities, perhaps even special electives in Shakespeare and the drama, in the novel, or in great books. The traditional course in English literature tends to be a study which emphasizes major English writers or major English works. Advanced courses in literature, oriented around the individual text and close analytical study, are being introduced in a few locations, and not infrequently are providing the context for some of the most exciting teaching observed by project observers. When taught by an instructor skilled in techniques of class discussion and Socratic questioning, such courses can lead students to basic and profound aspects of the literary experience. Courses which are conceived on an historical or cultural basis; or courses primarily concerned with themes and ideas, or biographical material, even courses which are concerned with literary genre or modes, appear sometimes to pursue ideas and understandings about literature, rather than the experience of literature itself. As reports from classroom observation make clear, exciting teaching of literature can happen within any one of these frameworks, but perhaps more frequently where class work is organized so that the study of the text and its emotional and ideational demands remain central.

World literature poses a problem. The sampling of literary selections characteristic of many geographically-oriented programs--a brief exposure to Nordic myth, Japanese haiku, or Confucianism, or excerpts from Bhagavad-Gita, or a Russian short story or French essay--offer a potpourri which can be criticized for neglect of literary values, as much as have traditional courses in the history of English literature. However, some of the better humanities programs suggest improvements: a Greek play is studied in its entirety, perhaps as part of an extensive interdisciplinary concern with classic thought; Tristan and Iseult, and perhaps even some complete Chaucer

tales might represent literature of the medieval period. Less often wedded to the coverage of all periods or countries, such courses at their best provide concentrated attention to human contributions in literature, art, and music during particular epochs. Although often criticized by observers for excessive coverage, for attempting to do too much too rapidly, for superficiality in treatment of one or more of the disciplines involved--they nevertheless tend to provide for some carefully guided study of complete individual texts.¹

In all such programs as in the more traditional offerings in world literature, the selection of literature in translation poses a special problem. Modern paperback publishing has made possible commercial reprinting of translations of major works that perhaps should long since have been forgotten. Teachers of English responsible for selecting texts have presently available few resources to which they can turn to determine felicity of the translations. Especially because some publishers seek the most inexpensive translations available, many nineteenth and early twentieth century translations, now in the public domain, are being used in the schools. Although certain of these earlier translations are worthwhile, others almost seem to stand between the contemporary reader and the original work. The question of how much literature in translation should be introduced is one which the profession has yet to resolve. Many, including the directors of this project, believe that our fundamental loyalty is less to coverage of any particular work than to teaching young people what literature is and how to read it. Powerful national committees such as the English advisory committee of the National Catholic Education Association recommend against any courses on

¹For further comments on humanities programs, see Chapter XIV on "Experimental Programs."

literature in translation;² the Commission on English urges caution;³ still the fact remains that few American students, even in college, are sufficiently fluent in another language to read mature literary selections with ease required for literary experience; an even smaller number are fluent in more than one or two foreign languages. Without some introduction of literature in translation, all Americans will be denied the aesthetic and intellectual pleasure possible only from reading the major classic authors like Cervantes, Boccaccio, Montagne, Voltaire, Ibsen, Chekhov, Dostoyevsky, Goethe, and Schiller, to mention only a few authors of the Western world. The issue seems to be not whether such literature should be included in the program, but how and when; and the further issue which the profession has yet to meet is providing classroom teachers and librarians with help in selecting adequate translations.⁴

Except in the case where some advanced courses in Grade 12 are devoted almost exclusively to literary study, the teaching of literature, however central, is integrally related to the teaching of writing and to other aspects of the English program. Not always do teachers achieve a desired integration of all components of English; but seldom do they attempt to teach these components separately. Of clear exception are a few experimental programs, especially those with modular scheduling, which separate periods of literary

²Report of English Advisory Committee, Proceedings of Annual Convention, National Catholic Education Association, 1964.

³Commission on English, op. cit., pp. 48-49.

⁴Fortunately a first attempt is being made by the National Council of Teachers of English which during 1966 plans to publish A Teacher's Guide to World Literature, edited by Robert O'Neal. For much of the past two decades, Charleton Laird, assisted by numerous scholars, has been preparing a compendious encyclopedia of literature in translation which ultimately will provide teachers with a major resource tool.

study from those in which other English content is taught. In all but three of the schools visited, English is viewed as a single field of studies, comprised of literature and other complementary parts. The maintenance of alternating semesters of literature and composition reported in just three schools seems characteristic of organizational patterns of instruction which flourished twenty-five years ago.

Selection of Literary Material

The selection of the literature taught in the majority of classes for college bound students is generally commendable; but the quality of selections introduced in classes for general students and slow learners is generally questionable. In programs cited for outstanding teaching of literature, books seemed plentiful and available; anthologies were supplemented by various sets of longer works, small seminar discussion was enhanced by use of group sets, and classroom book collections were used. This, in short, is a summary of the observations on book selection practices.

The literature anthology continues to be widely used, but in the overwhelming majority of these schools it is introduced largely to provide a common core of readings for all students and is supplemented by other texts. Thus, in summarizing classroom observations, observers ranked the use of anthologies first of fourteen practices in frequency, ranked use of multiple sets of books fifth, and classroom book collections eighth. Indeed, the ready accessibility of many texts is clearly a distinguishing characteristic of outstanding programs for teaching literature. Not only are individual titles available for reading, but reference works needed to support studies are present as well. The following report, if not typical of the majority of schools, is a good description of the better:

The school library has 40,000 to 50,000 volumes. It is centrally located, and there are reading rooms that are really comfortable and quiet. More important, each classroom has perhaps two or three hundred books and reference works available to students who wish to take them, and innumerable sets (i.e., twelve to fifteen copies) of books are available to teachers on a moment's notice. If a teacher decides to use a particular poem, for example, he has only to pick up twelve copies of the Oxford Anthology, or whatever, from the department room, take them to class, and provide every student with a text for that class session. Other books are available through an excellent bookstore right on the edge of the campus not 100 yards from the instructional building, and students may be required to buy whatever paperbacks the instructor sees fit to order.

Recognition of the significance of an ample supply of supplementary books and individual titles led two conferences of high school department chairmen to recommend libraries of 500 appropriate titles in every English classroom.⁵

The increasing availability of bound books clearly provides teachers in strong literature programs with an adequate supply of texts at reasonable cost. Project observers were especially keen in observing substantial benefits that accrue from students being able to purchase their own books. College observers may have been quicker to notice advantages in student-owned texts, perhaps, because such practice is common to their own university experience. "The use of paperbound books . . . permits students to mark in their texts, as they absolutely must do for any kind of stylistic analysis or close reading. I saw one class which noted all the imagery in a chapter of The Red Badge of Courage, and the discussion was better than anything I have seen anywhere else."

Whenever teachers restricted their use of material to a single anthology or two (or were so restricted by inadequate school funds), the teaching of literature suffered. The findings with respect to the planning

⁵Robert Lacampagne (ed.), op. cit., p. 13.

of individual reading in the classroom are reported later in this section, and the personal reading choices of adolescents in these schools seem so important that they are also treated in a separate chapter (See Chapter IX). But it is clear that excessive reliance on the anthologies, called by one observer "thin, undernourished, oversimplified, and frequently puerile," received little praise when practiced to the virtual exclusion of individual texts.

The schools showed considerable variation in the titles required of their students. As Table 62 indicates, Macbeth and Julius Caesar are the only major works required of college preparatory classes in more than half of the schools in the Study. In this respect, findings do not differ substantially from the findings of Anderson reported two years earlier, except that the literary quality of the books used with college bound youth reported even by 10 percent of the schools is far less questionable than results in the earlier random survey of the nation's schools at large (Table 63).⁶ Also, the schools in the Study tend if anything to be slightly less prescriptive than schools in general, appearing to have been more responsive to the virtually unanimous recommendations of the past decade from scholars and teaching specialists that Silas Marner be dropped as required reading in favor of better literature.

Table 64 compares the selections mentioned as particularly significant reading experiences by 2,317 advanced twelfth grade students in these schools with the number of schools requiring each title. Of the top eighteen reading choices of advanced students, only two, The Scarlet Letter and The Return of the Native, are taught by more than 10 percent of the

⁶ Scarvia Anderson, Between the Grimms and the Group; Literature in American High Schools (Princeton, N. J.: Educational Testing Service, 1964).

Table 62

Titles Required in College Preparatory Classes,
Grades 10-12, as Reported by Department Chairmen
(n = 109)

Rank	Title	Total Number of Listings	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12
1	<u>Macbeth</u>	67	0	21	46
2	<u>Julius Caesar</u>	56	55	1	0
3	<u>Hamlet</u>	52	0	4	48
4	<u>Silas Marner</u>	50	48	2	0
5	<u>The Scarlet Letter</u>	47	6	39	2
6.5	<u>A Tale of Two Cities</u>	40	28	3	9
6.5	<u>The Return of the Native</u>	40	0	3	37
8	<u>Huckleberry Finn</u>	39	10	26	3
9	<u>The Red Badge of Courage</u>	37	11	26	0
10.5	<u>Moby Dick</u>	28	3	23	2
10.5	<u>Our Town</u>	28	1	24	3
12	<u>The Bridge of San Luis Rey</u>	26	8	17	1
13	<u>Oedipus Rex</u>	18	1	3	14
14	<u>Idylls of the King</u>	16	10	6	0
15	<u>The Pearl</u>	14	13	1	0
17	<u>The House of Seven Gables</u>	13	3	10	0
17	<u>The Old Man and the Sea</u>	13	6	7	0
17	<u>Pride and Prejudice</u>	13	0	2	11
19	<u>Walden</u>	11	1	10	0
20.5	<u>Cyrano de Bergerac</u>	10	5	1	4
20.5	<u>Giants in the Earth</u>	10	1	8	1

Table 63

Percentage of Schools Requiring Selected Books
Compared with Sampling Nationally

Rank Order	Title	Percentage of 109 Schools in Study Requiring Title	Percentage of Public Schools Nationally Requiring Title*
1	<u>Macbeth</u>	61	90
2	<u>Julius Caesar</u>	51	77
3	<u>Hamlet</u>	48	33
4	<u>Silas Marner</u>	46	76
5	<u>Scarlet Letter</u>	43	32
6.5	<u>Tale of Two Cities</u>	40	33
6.5	<u>Return of the Native</u>	40	16
8	<u>Huckleberry Finn</u>	36	27
9	<u>Red Badge of Courage</u>	34	33
10.5	<u>Moby Dick</u>	26	18
10.5	<u>Our Town</u>	26	46
12	<u>Bridge of San Luis Rey</u>	24	13

*Based on reports on public schools in Scarvia Anderson's Between the Grimms and the Group; Literature in American High Schools.

schools, a finding which underscores the importance of the guided individual reading program and the contributions of such programs to the development of taste and appreciation.

Emerging from interviews with advanced twelfth grade classes is evidence that students have distinct opinions concerning literature which should be taught. Even while acknowledging the value of their programs in literature, students recommended changes in the program more frequently than in any other aspect except the teaching of composition (Chapter III,

Table 64

Titles Most Often Mentioned as Significant
by Advanced Twelfth Grade Students, Compared with the Number
of Schools Requiring the Title on Any Grade Level

Rank Order	Title	Number of Students (n = 2,317)	Number of Schools Requiring (n = 109)
1	<u>Lord of the Flies</u>	96	2
2	<u>Catcher in the Rye</u>	66	1
3	<u>To Kill a Mockingbird</u>	34	4
4	<u>1984</u>	33	3
5	<u>Bible</u>	30	0
7	<u>Crime and Punishment</u>	27	9
7	<u>Gone with the Wind</u>	27	0
7	<u>The Robe</u>	27	0
10	<u>Black Like Me</u>	25	0
10	<u>Cry, the Beloved Country</u>	25	4
10	<u>Of Human Bondage</u>	25	2
12	<u>The Scarlet Letter</u>	24	47
14	<u>Exodus</u>	23	0
14	<u>The Ugly American</u>	23	1
14	<u>War and Peace</u>	23	0
16	<u>Grapes of Wrath</u>	20	1
17	<u>Return of the Native</u>	19	40
18	<u>Brave New World</u>	18	5

Table 56). Asked to specify the nature of these changes, students inevitably called for the study of more contemporary works, books like those included on the list which advanced students suggest be added to the English program (Table 65). Teachers are definitely aware of this problem, as was indicated

Table 65

Books Suggested by Twelfth Grade Advanced Students
to Be Added to the English Program
(n = 2,317)

Rank Order	Title	Number of Times Mentioned
1	<u>Lord of the Flies</u> , William Golding	96
2	<u>The Catcher in the Rye</u> , J. D. Salinger	66
3	<u>To Kill a Mockingbird</u> , Harper Lee	34
4	<u>1984</u> , George Orwell	33
5	<u>The Bible</u>	30
7	<u>Crime and Punishment</u> , Fedor Dostoyevsky	27
7	<u>Gone with the Wind</u> , Margaret Mitchell	27
7	<u>The Robe</u> , Lloyd C. Douglas	27
10	<u>Black Like Me</u> , John Griffin	25
10	<u>Cry, the Beloved Country</u> , Alan Paton	25
10	<u>Of Human Bondage</u> , Somerset Maugham	25
12	<u>The Scarlet Letter</u> , Nathaniel Hawthorne	24
14	<u>Exodus</u> , Leon Uris	23
14	<u>The Ugly American</u> , Ledderer & Burdick	23
14	<u>War and Peace</u> , Leo Tolstoi	23
16	<u>The Grapes of Wrath</u> , John Steinbeck	20
17	<u>The Return of the Native</u> , Thomas Hardy	19
18	<u>Brave New World</u> , Aldous Huxley	18
19.5	<u>All Quiet on the Western Front</u> , Erich Remarque	17
19.5	<u>Les Miserables</u> , Victor Hugo	17
21.5	<u>The Fountainhead</u> , Ayn Rand	16
21.5	<u>Moby Dick</u> , Herman Melville	16
23	<u>Animal Farm</u> , George Orwell	15
25	<u>The Good Earth</u> , Pearl S. Buck	14
25	<u>Hamlet</u> , William Shakespeare	14
25	<u>Huckleberry Finn</u> , Mark Twain	14
29.5	<u>Advise and Consent</u> , Allen Drury	11
29.5	<u>The Agony and the Ecstasy</u> , Irving Stone	11
29.5	<u>Hawaii</u> , James Michener	11
29.5	<u>The Once and Future King</u> , T. H. White	11
29.5	<u>The Prophet</u> , Kahlil Gibran	11
29.5	<u>The Tale of Two Cities</u> , Charles Dickens	11
33	<u>Profiles in Courage</u> , John F. Kennedy	10
35.5	<u>Fail Safe</u> , William Lederer and Eugene Burick	8
35.5	<u>The Great Gatsby</u> , Scott Fitzgerald	8
35.5	<u>Our Town</u> , Thornton Wilder	8
35.5	<u>Poetics</u> , Aristotle	8
39.5	<u>Diary of Anne Frank</u> , Anne Frank	7
39.5	<u>Lord Jim</u> , Joseph Conrad	7
39.5	<u>The Stranger</u> , Albert Camus	7
39.5	<u>Travels with Charley</u> , John Steinbeck	7

in the group interviews when total departments were compelled to comment on achieving balance between contemporary and standard selections in the literature program. Torn between community pressures, fearing censorship, and desiring to maintain traditional literary values, most faculties are divided. Almost inevitably, one-third advocate the inclusion of more contemporary material, an equally large group defend traditional selections, and at least some maintain that a proper balance is already achieved.

With few exceptions, the decisions concerning inclusion and exclusion approach a crisis point with three titles--Lord of the Flies, Catcher in the Rye, and To Kill a Mockingbird, titles with unique appeal to adolescents but with objectionable elements of content for some teachers and parents. Indeed, the exaggerated concern with these titles, however understandable, only seems to cloud the real issue. Teachers would do well to ponder more deeply the effects, not of failing to teach two or three specific titles which most able students can and will read on their own, but of the deliberate de-emphasis of major American fiction of the twentieth century in literature programs. Schools and teachers talk much of transmitting our common cultural heritage to students, but this heritage is singularly uncommon if it does not include some awareness of the significant contributions made to literature in English by such major figures as William Faulkner and Ernest Hemingway.

If most schools seem not to have structured a commendable program for teaching contemporary literature, they do manage (one way or another) to encourage the able college bound student to increase his reading, and the quality of the reading presented to advanced, honors, and upper track students--the "upper 50 percent"-- was generally praised. This was not true, however, of selections for the lower tracks. Although the majority of

these schools are engaged in a two-track, three-track, five-track, or--in one case--an "eleven-track" system of providing instruction in English, literary content in these programs for slow, general, or terminal students is almost non-existent. True, classroom observers reported approximately 40 percent of the instruction in such classes emphasizes "literature" (Chapter III, Table 40), but literature here too frequently referred to selections of non-imaginative sorts--articles in special readers or special kits, factual materials selected for "high reader interest," or rewritten classics. Even more discouraging are the vain efforts to use books with these students to which even more able students have difficulty responding. The magnitude of the problem is suggested by the appalling discovery that on a written issues questionnaire, some 74.4 percent of teachers agreed with the statement that "Novels and plays adapted to suit the abilities of slower students are essential to a good English program because they accord these students an acquaintance with the best in literature." Only 16.1 percent disagreed. Quite possibly the term "adapted" as used in this context has an ambiguous meaning, and the desperation of many teachers for materials suitable to the needs of their students is understandable; still they mistake the nature of literature itself and the purpose of programs in literature if they confuse the shell of Gulliver's Travels, rewritten as it must be for slow readers, with the work of art itself. Although certain books will admit a judicious cutting for classroom presentation, the majority are destroyed in the process. Indeed the very unity of content and form, the essence of art, is attacked through these adapted versions. To assume that students through such reading can ever be introduced to the pleasures and purposes of literature is to misunderstand the nature of the literary experience. The widespread use of adapted titles thus represents an evasion of literature

more dishonest if not more pernicious than exaggerated concern with historical or social factors.

Despite the support which many teachers indicate, observers find reliance on adaptations less widespread in classes for non-college and terminal students than non-literary materials. What concerned observers repeatedly was the absence of thought and planning directed to programs for the non-college student, the absence of excitement and interest in teaching and learning English displayed by both students and teachers in these classes, and impoverished and inadequate reading fare provided for such students. Even slow and average students can read literature with deep emotional and intellectual commitment; and materials are available to which they will respond. As one portion of this Study, some 1,617 students in tenth grade terminal classes were asked on a questionnaire to identify the titles of books which had provided "personally significant" reading experience. The titles listed are ranked in Table 66. Even allowing for those individuals who might list Tale of Two Cities or David Copperfield because they are the only titles they can remember, the list is singularly helpful in identifying at least twenty-five books of good quality to which non-college students can respond. Programs which encourage the reading of books like Gone with the Wind, The Pearl, To Kill a Mockingbird, The Diary of Anne Frank, and The Yearling are far more likely to develop permanent lifetime reading of good books than are offerings which concentrate on reading exercises involving articles on travel exploits or technological advances, or twenty-nine-page versions of a major classic.

Not all programs for terminal students underemphasize the teaching of literature. In one particularly interesting city, classroom pupils were reading ten different titles, all in paperback. These were books such as

Table 66

Titles Reported by Tenth Grade Terminal Students
to Be Personally Significant
(n = 1,617)

Rank Order	Title	Number of Times Mentioned
1	<u>Gone with the Wind</u>	36
2.5	<u>The Pearl</u>	35
2.5	<u>A Tale of Two Cities</u>	35
4	<u>To Kill a Mockingbird</u>	34
5	<u>Call of the Wild</u>	20
6.5	<u>Diary of Anne Frank</u>	19
6.5	<u>The Yearling</u>	19
8.5	<u>Hot Rod</u>	18
8.5	<u>Les Miserables</u>	18
10	<u>The Ugly American</u>	15
12.5	<u>The Good Earth</u>	12
12.5	<u>Kon Tiki</u>	12
12.5	<u>The Old Man and the Sea</u>	12
12.5	<u>Old Yeller</u>	12
16	<u>David Copperfield</u>	11
16	<u>PT 109</u>	11
16	<u>Silas Marner</u>	11
18.5	<u>Black Like Me</u>	9
18.5	<u>Fail Safe</u>	9
21.5	<u>All Quiet on the Western Front</u>	8
21.5	<u>The Longest Day</u>	8
21.5	<u>Mutiny on the Bounty</u>	8
21.5	<u>Twenty Thousand Leagues Under the Sea</u>	8
26.5	<u>The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn</u>	7
26.5	<u>Great Expectations</u>	7
26.5	<u>The House of Seven Gables</u>	7
26.5	<u>Jane Eyre</u>	7
26.5	<u>John Paul Jones</u>	7
26.5	<u>1984</u>	7
32.5	<u>Shane</u>	6
32.5	<u>Black Stallion</u>	6
32.5	<u>Hie to the Hunter</u>	6
32.5	<u>The Story of My Life, Helen Keller</u>	6
32.5	<u>The West Side Story</u>	6
32.5	<u>White Fang</u>	6
42.5	<u>Animal Farm</u>	5
42.5	<u>The Bible</u>	5
42.5	<u>Death Be Not Proud</u>	5
42.5	<u>Ethan Frome</u>	5
42.5	<u>Good-by, Mr. Chips</u>	5
42.5	<u>Julius Caesar</u>	5
42.5	<u>Lost Horizon</u>	5
42.5	<u>Mickey Mantle</u>	5
42.5	<u>Mrs. Mike</u>	5
42.5	<u>Night Flight</u>	5
42.5	<u>On the Beach</u>	5
42.5	<u>The Raft</u>	5
42.5	<u>The Rise and Fall of the Third Reich</u>	5
42.5	<u>Run Silent, Run Deep</u>	5

The Raft, Mutiny on the Bounty, and The Call of the Wild--good quality for adolescent readers with academic limitations. Each student read two or three books as he found time, and the teacher organized small discussion groups with which she met (while other students were reading) to provide needed instruction. Indeed, many of the classes for non-college students which seemed to be providing worthwhile experiences in literature were also classes permitting student choice in reading. There were the classes in which the unique nature and interests of pupils had been considered in selecting materials for reading, without forgetting the nature of literature and the continuing importance of providing imaginative reading of suitable quality. In short, present programs for teaching literature to non-college students tend to err for a fundamental reason: teachers forget their fundamental obligation to select imaginative literature of quality which can have meaning for their pupils.

Approaches to Teaching Literature

Teachers rely on various approaches to teaching literature, according to project observers, but despite the strong emphasis on literature reported in almost every school, only a minority of teachers--perhaps not more than one-fourth--devoted attention to analytical study of individual texts. More often than not, observers found the hours of literary study devoted to formal or informal talks (by teacher or student) on the age or period when the literature was written, on the writer himself, on the literary genre as an abstraction to be perceived in and for itself without reference to text, or on isolated facts or fragments of information extracted from the selection. More than a few teachers also discussed ideas or themes presented in the literary selection, without directing the students' attention to the ways in which these ideas are developed in the work itself. Students are asked

not to examine specific passages and incidents within the work to determine how a specific image or episode contributes to the author's unified effect, but rather to accept blandly the theme or idea emerging from the work (or almost as frequently from the teacher's comments on the work) and to apply it to "everyday life," to "their own experience," or to other reading. Attempts to relate the reading to experiences which have meaning to the readers is commendable, of course, but not at the expense of understanding what the author has to say. In too many classrooms, students seem to discuss in vague and uncertain terms concepts which they would be sorely pressed to find in any work that they had read.

Other evasions of the individual work were frequently reported. Some teachers rely heavily on assigning a series of questions (either conceived in their own minds or in the anthology) and ask students to devote class time to writing the answers. When well formulated, such questions can direct attention to important internal aspects of any literary work, but too seldom did observers find evidence of appropriate synthesis through discussion. Submission of written answers often marked the end, rather than the beginning, of literary analysis. The use of mimeographed study guides and outlines of plot structure or rising and falling action, or emphasis on approved definitions of literary terms (without concrete referents in the works read), or talks by the teacher on dates and places (not infrequently illustrated talks)--these practices fill too many class hours. "Patterns of teaching literature by study guide questions, handouts of secondary materials, and lectures can tend to discourage close reading or a pupil's experience with literature," reported one discouraged project observer. "Surely such approaches train the mind and offer a disciplined, intellectualized experience. But I fear many pupils then look on novels as

case histories. How much do they read for the enjoyment of reading?"

That the majority of teachers in this Study are aware of modern critical approaches to literature emphasizing analytical study is apparent in the data on their preparation presented in Chapter II. When asked to specify the components of an institute or extension course which would most interest them, the teachers indicate a personal preference for advanced study involving close reading. On the issues questionnaire, some 83.5 percent agreed with the statement that "It is necessary to teach some literature (primarily poems and short stories) through close textual analysis to help the student develop an appreciation of good literature." Only 8.7 percent disagreed. Moreover, 61 percent rejected the statement "A critical comprehensive analysis of a poem will do more to destroy its beauty than it will to develop literary appreciation among students." Only 20 percent agreed. Whatever their practice, the teachers clearly are not opposed to close reading of individual selections.

At its best, the teaching of literature is the teaching of critical awareness and discernment, the teaching of readers to bring to bear on the literary text all their powers of perception, their values, their emotional and intellectual commitments. It involves teaching the students how to read literature as much as teaching about an individual text. Here indeed may be one of the difficulties in schools today. Too many teachers seem to view knowledge of and about Macbeth or Silas Marner as the ultimate end of instruction in literature, rather than refinement of the processes of learning to read Macbeth or Silas Marner with insight and discrimination. Where analytical reading of literature is taught consciously as a process, observers encountered some of the most exciting classrooms. In one school, for example, "classes in Hamlet or Macbeth deal with the play line by line, scene by scene, and concern themselves with such questions as the nature of

the imagery, its relation to the theme, its total effect; the varieties of means by which Shakespeare characterizes his people; the contrasts between scene and scene, act and act; structure in the play, etc."

Analytical teaching of this quality is unusual, particularly when it permeates the instruction of an entire faculty; yet in a selected few institutions, it dominates the entire program. When this happens, students not only seem to enjoy their reading more but respond more emotionally and with greater sophistication and enjoyment to the literature itself. Although observers did occasionally find "bloodless" exercises in the close reading of the work completely removed from literature, life, or anything of meaning to students, they reported far more frequently that teaching approaches which focussed on central dimensions of the literary work also ultimately led students to see the relationship of the work to life itself--but to see this in sophisticated, insightful ways. At one school, for example, obvious differences were reported in the approaches to close reading used at different levels, yet the ultimate effect of such teaching of literature is clearly apparent:

Teachers regard themselves as discussion leaders, or leaders of a Socratic dialogue in which students bear the largest part. At the lower levels, the discussion verges on recitation, with students going over the details of the plot and characterization, but by the last two years, students are able to discuss a novel at a very sophisticated level indeed. Because there are no final examinations or, I believe, factual quizzes, students do not make marginal notes--the most helpful form of note-taking, I believe--but the majority are so busy trying to comprehend the work through discussion that they do not simply take down what is said, verbatim. They are willing to challenge not only each other, but the teachers, and the result is the most stimulating series of classes I have ever visited.

That programs of teaching emphasizing the process of close reading offer a particularly intelligent way of introducing sequence into literary studies is suggested also in the following report:

The methods of discussion used in several of these classes were impressive in the contact they provided between the students and the text. All students had paperback copies of the books which they had marked during their reading and marked again during the discussion. The teacher directed attention to the author's repetition of particular words and particular sounds to support the meaning he was intending to convey. A series of Socratic-type questions direct attention not only to conventional narrative elements for the purpose of clarifying understanding, but to the use of imagery, allusions, sound patterns, stylistic devices, and to the key ideas. Nor are thematic elements neglected. The carefully planned series of questions, structured to proceed from the very specific to the very general, led students to a careful and exciting analysis of particular passages, and ultimately to an understanding of the entire piece. Because discussion was grounded in specific works, available in the students hands, they referred again and again to the text. Questions from the teacher encouraged responses from several students as they agreed and disagreed in their interpretations. Ultimately, the teachers would summarize and clinch the discussion by asking, in effect, "What then would you conclude from our discussion about this particular selection."

This then is a model analytical approach: text available; careful sequences of questions in discussion; discussion in terms proceeding from the simple to the complex, from words to images, from incidents to episodes, from simple constructs to broad ideas and themes, from a consideration of obvious elements of plot and characterization to concern with intended meanings, with style, structure, and author's purpose; from consideration of the text itself to a consideration of its relationship to other writing and to ideas and meanings outside of the text to aesthetic and ethical values. The slant and depth of the teacher's questions will depend upon the ability and maturity of the class, but what does seem important is that young readers learn to understand this approach to the reading of literature and to adopt it as their own. When this happens, as it invariably does, certain of the early stages of analytical reading may be telescoped in the classroom, and teacher and students proceed to discussing broad ideas, themes, and purposes. But without careful analysis, such an overall approach only invites superficiality.

If teachers have been educated in such processes themselves, as many

report they have been, why have close reading experiences been seen so seldom in the classroom? One problem is clearly in the way in which time is spent. As Chapter III indicated, some 22 percent of classroom time is devoted to recitation; an additional 21 percent to lecture; 14 percent to student presentation; and the balance of what remains to silent work, group work, audio-visual experiences and other approaches which provide little opportunity for the kind of controlled questioning that is the heart of analytical study. Only 19.5 percent of 32,580 minutes observed was devoted to class discussion; only 2.2 percent were reported focussed on Socratic questioning, a low percentage that may be invalidated by the admitted difficulty which observers experienced in agreeing on the Socratic approach. What is not suspect, however, is that little more than one-fifth of all classroom time is devoted to planned discussion involving students and teachers, the heart of any approach to literary study involving close reading.

The ability to ask the right questions and secure answers that in turn lead to additional comments and contributions and ultimately to a generalization, is a skill which few teachers seem to possess. More frequently than not, teachers were found to ask questions which, if no student response followed, they would answer themselves. Questioning of the caliber described in the report of the Commission on English is evident in too few classrooms.⁷ Clearly teachers need help with techniques for leading classroom discussion, and few of the presently available books on the teaching of English seem to recognize this need. One can only speculate as to whether existing courses in methods of teaching English devote

⁷Commission on English, op. cit., pp. 57-79.

adequate time to such approaches. The Evans survey reports that 57 percent of methods instructors claim to place broad emphasis on conducting classroom instruction; 43 percent thus do not.⁸ At any rate, one reason for the inadequate attention devoted to close reading in our nation's schools may be that teachers who know about modern analytical approaches to literary study, know not how to translate this knowledge into actual approaches to be used by their students.

A second factor is undoubtedly heavy teaching loads. As data in Chapter II indicate, the pupil-teacher loads in these schools are slightly below the national average, but, even so, these teachers tend to work in excess of fifty hours a week. Only a slight percentage of this time, a median of five to eight hours, is devoted to planning for classroom instruction. Without question, preparation for analytical study of a literary text required much more time than any other approach. The teacher must be sufficiently acquainted with each element in the work that he can ask and answer questions; reliance on a previous year's notes will not do. If he expects to bring his students forward with excitement about a particular poem, he must know that poem in intimate ways. Consequently, he must read, study, and ponder the poem to an extent that may not be possible under existing conditions. Even if he has taught the poem earlier, he will find repeated reading prior to classroom study to be necessary. In contrast, if he elects to concentrate on facts about the poem or literary work, on background discussion of author, times, theme, or source, he may be able to rely on his memory of the work and his notes from a previous year. Almost without knowing the choices they must inevitably make, some teachers are

⁸ William H. Evans and Michael J. Cardone, Specialized Courses in Methods of Teaching English (Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1964), p. 20.

drawn away from concentration on the literary experience itself by the excessive demands of their schedules. That this hypothesis may in part explain some of the more general emphasis on programs in literature is suggested by the greater emphasis on close reading and textual criticism found in independent schools in which teaching loads were severely restricted. Not because the teachers in independent schools seem better qualified in literature than teachers in public or Catholic institutions, but because these teachers frequently encounter no more than four classes of twelve or fourteen students each. Classroom instruction in literature seemed to reflect more careful preparation, much as do many college classes. The discovery that sustained attention to close reading may be possible only when teaching loads are reduced to permit adequate preparation seems to the directors of the Study to be one of the most important hypotheses emerging from this research.

How extensively do teachers vary classroom approaches in teaching works of different kinds? Because most teachers were observed only once or twice during a school visit, direct evidence from classroom visits was not readily available. However, in the group interviews with advanced twelfth-grade classes, students were asked to describe normal procedures followed when novels, plays, and poems had been read together. Tables 67, 68, and 69 present the results of these interviews. In a class situation with two observers present, sometimes with the regular teacher and sometimes without, the twelfth graders were asked to report "What happens in class when you read a novel (play, poem) in common?" They were advised to consider all their classes in English, not merely the one in which they were presently enrolled. Naturally enough, students reported that the instruction varied from teacher to teacher, but the data reveal some important distinctions.

Table 67

Frequency of Classroom Approaches to a Novel
as Reported by Students
(n = 99 classes)

Rank Order	Approach	Number of Classes
1	Discussion	43
2	Reading Chapter by Chapter	18
3	Writing a Paper	14
4.5	Testing	12
4.5	Analysis in Depth (close reading)	12
6.5	Lectures in Class	8
6.5	Re-reading of Story	8
8	Reading Section at a Time	7
9	Group Study of Different Novels	6
11.5	Use of Study Guide	4
11.5	Study of Characterization	4
11.5	Panel Discussion	4
11.5	Study of Theme	4
14	Viewing of Film	3
14	Study of Plot	3

Others mentioned: study of setting 2; style 2; reading difficult parts aloud 2; reports; study of irony and paradox, social conditions, background; constantly relating one book to another; round table discussion; study of "points of grammar in a novel"; "reading all at once, then study"; "don't read novels, just become acquainted with them."

Table 68

Frequency of Classroom Approaches to a Poem
as Reported by Students
(n = 99 classes)

Rank Order	Approach	Number of Classes
1	Explication or analysis (close, line by line reading)	28
2	Study of Theme	17
3	Discussion	15
4	Reading Aloud	12
5	Study of Technical Aspects	10
6	Listing to Recordings	7
7	Study of Poets' Lives	5
8.5	Writing a Poem	4
8.5	Writing an Analysis	4
10	Oral Interpretation	3
11.5	Memorization	2
11.5	Comparing of Poems	2

Others mentioned: outline "L'Allegro" and "Il Penseroso"; outline précis; study point of view, research, meter; use study guides; study form; study types of poetry; paraphrase; "read outside, discuss inside"; "read inside, discuss outside"; individuals respond as they wish; not discussed; "3-6 poems a day."

Table 69

Frequency of Classroom Approaches to a Play
as Reported by Students
(n = 99 classes)

Rank Order	Approach	Number of Classes
1	Discussion	26
2	Reading Aloud	20
3	Analysis of Lines or Scenes	18
4	Study of Actors and Characters	11
5	Acting Out Scenes	8
6.5	Study of Style	5
6.5	Listening to Recordings	5
8	Viewing of Films	4
9	Teacher Reading Aloud	3
9	Memorization of Lines	3

Others mentioned: write; small group study; lectures; (2 each) tests; see play; see TV performance; study language of play; read background essays; study style; summarize; study history of play; compose plays; rotate books; re-read scenes; study Elizabethan conventions; recite Greek chorus; put in everyday language.

Clearly works of literature are "discussed," although observers have already indicated the varying interpretations which teachers seem to place upon this approach. Even so, it is interesting to note that only 43 percent of the classes mention discussion with respect to reading novels, 26 percent with respect to plays (for both it ranks as the major technique), and only 15 percent for poetry, where it ranks second to the study of theme and to explication. Indeed, classes seemed to distinguish between "discussion" and "explication" (line by line analysis). It is comforting

to note that explication of poetry is mentioned more frequently than any other approach; disconcerting to discover that it was mentioned specifically, however, only by 28 percent of the classes. This finding only tends to substantiate other data which indicate that close reading is not nearly so widespread as articles in contemporary journals would lead one to believe, and that when it does occur, it is more likely to be directed toward the reading of short works like poems than to passages from novels or plays.

Reports from students corroborate, also, the observation that schools devote insufficient attention to oral interpretation of literature. Oral approaches seem relatively unimportant with respect to the novel, but the fact that, with respect to poetry, only twelve classes mention "reading aloud," seven report "listening to recordings," and three single out "oral interpretation" in general, raises considerable question about whether contemporary school programs are relating sound to sense. Even more startling is the fact that only 20 percent of the classes report the oral reading of plays to be an integral part of the study of drama. Whether young readers can learn to view the drama as theatre in any other way, is debatable.

Beyond these observations, the reports from students suggest that there is a commendable variety of current approaches to literary study, which both suggests the inventiveness of teachers and reflects at times practices which seemed highly questionable to observers. One can only regret that, with the exception of an occasional test on classroom analysis, the writing of students seemed frequently unrelated to the study of literature.

Teachers do seem to believe that some writing should be related to literature, although about 60 percent disagree with the statement on the

issues questionnaire that "Virtually all student writing should grow out of the literature read and discussed by the class." Some 29 percent agree. On the other hand, many of the writing assignments which "grow out of literature" are as superficial and questionable as the following topics one teacher presented to tenth graders reading Silas Marner: "I Walked with Eppie," "William Dane Confesses," "I Was Eppie's Friend but I Didn't Get into the Novel." However such assignments may develop the individual's writing ability, it is questionable whether they could possibly contribute much to his understanding of literature. On the other hand, assignments involving the analysis and explication of a poem or short prose passage can direct the students' attention to important aspects of the literary work. Many teachers, also, ask classes to write about ideas discussed in the literature, perhaps for the purpose of applying the ideas in other contexts. In honors classes, too, the impact of advance placement tests concerned with the analytical study of a particular poem or passage is apparent throughout the country; few teachers seem to attempt such analysis with less difficult selections in general classes. Nor do most teachers attempt to relate assignments in imaginative writing to literary study, a neglect which may be unfortunate. A number of students insisted that not until they actually learned to write a poem did they understand what poetry was; similarly, the experience of emulating the style of Ring Lardner, of parodying a Tennyson, or of placing a character from Shakespeare or Chaucer in a new setting can develop in young readers fresh insights into literature, as an occasional observer report would indicate. Too few teachers seem to perceive ways of relating imaginative writing to the program of literary studies, and the reports from students indicate that they, too, have not been exposed to (or if they have they do not understand) such approaches.

The teaching of literature in these schools, then, occupies more than 50 percent of class time. The teaching is varied and at times imaginative, and in the strongest programs provides for the incisive treatment of individual texts. But its major weakness seems to be insufficient concern with depth reading of individual texts, and overemphasis on superficial aspects of plot, author, history, and theme which surround the reading of texts.

Individual Reading of Literature

If the close reading of texts is one crucial characteristic of strong programs in literature, guided individual reading programs seems equally important. Indeed, the outstanding programs visited in this Study combined intensive analytical study, which teaches students how to respond, with wide personal reading of worthwhile selections. Yet despite a decade or two of discussion in professional journals concerning the contribution of guided programs of individual reading to the teaching of literature, a minority of schools in this Study seemed to be making a real attempt. To be sure, most required a specific number of titles to be read during a semester (usually three to six) and provide book lists to guide the student choices. In general, the guided reading too often seemed to be divorced from the organized literature program.

Programs in individual reading of literature sufficiently impressed observers to be rated ninth among the distinguishing characteristics of strong high school English programs (Chapter III, Table 36). In twenty-three cumulative reports, such programs were cited as outstanding--programs directly related to instruction in English, providing class time for some reading; and considered sufficiently important to devote some time to individual discussion with students about reading choices. Wrote one

observer of a high school program in a relatively small southern community: "Each English class has one reading period per week when the students read, fill in reports, or discuss their reading with teachers. Classroom libraries augment the school library--some rooms having as many as 200 or 300 titles including Camus, Freud, Joyce, Mann, etc. Almost everybody in this school is reading a book. Moreover, teachers know the books and talk about them intelligently." Indeed, immediate access to books which students will be reading is characteristic of the better of these programs; and their provision for extensive classroom book collections and reading time is one of the more promising innovations in secondary English (See Chapter XIV). Having books available in the room enables the student or teacher to reach for a title at an appropriate time--when other works by the author are mentioned, when books on similar themes are discussed, when an assignment is completed and a few moments of leisure time permit browsing. Having such collections available, then, seemed not only an excellent basis for developing a program of guidance for personal reading "inside" the classroom, but an indication that school and teacher viewed the guided individual reading program as an important concern. Thus, it is not surprising that observers rated the absence of classroom book collections as one of the ten most frequently discovered deficiencies (Chapter III, Table 39); it is discouraging to recall that such collections were found with great frequency only by twenty-eight observers, in contrast to the 125 observer reports indicating such collections were infrequently or never seen (Chapter III, Table 49).

Teachers did utilize other ways of organizing guided reading programs. For example, lists were frequently displayed--in a few schools three-year lists of required out-of-class reading were intended to ensure that graduates became acquainted with certain major works not studied in class. For the

most part, the success of such lists varies with class time expended on reading and on teacher direction. Where completion of the reading culminated in class discussion or in the writing of a long essay about the works, students seemed more likely to regard such assignments seriously. In several schools, summer reading assignments were reported as particularly beneficial; selected works are assigned during the spring--say, The Odyssey, Cry, the Beloved Country, and The Pearl--read during the summer recess, and discussed during the opening weeks of the fall semester. Similarly, some teachers assign selections which parallel classroom reading, often using multiple sets for this purpose. The class studies a single work of fiction like The Secret Sharer; individuals choose for their own reading from six other available works of fiction--How Green Was My Valley, Les Miserables, and others. One advantage of this approach seems to be the opportunities for contrastive analysis which are presented. Another is that the personal reading program is clearly related to the intensive assigned reading program.

Wide reading, then, does seem to be characteristic of the stronger programs, as does the relation of this reading to continuing classroom work. An increasing number of schools seem to be providing hours for reading within the regular classroom schedule; smart teachers use such time for conferences with individuals and groups. According to twelfth-grade students, most reporting on individual reading is provided through written book reviews, only a few of which were described by observers as the routinized written assignment long associated with such chores ("Write one paragraph on character, one on plot, one on most interesting incident, etc."). Criticism of such assignments has apparently had some effect. More frequently, students were asked to develop some central idea about the

books they had read. Oral book reports are reported frequent in 40 percent of the schools; indeed, some observers saw and questioned more than a few of such presentations. But the students interviewed also recalled more exciting moments when they reported on their personal reading: classroom discussions led by the teacher, panel discussions around books and topics, small group book discussions, written comparisons, dramatic presentation of characters, etc. The list is almost as long as the ingenuity of English teachers themselves.

The critical finding was the discovery that where attempts are made to provide worthwhile literature for adolescents, students do read. Again and again observers contrasted the obvious amount of reading underway in schools furnished with classroom book collections, good libraries, paperback book stores, with the paucity of such reading in schools in which little thought had been given to the availability of a good supply of worthwhile books. Even with the present diversity, students in these schools report that they read an average of eight books a month, albeit many titles come from sources outside the school (See Chapter IX). It seems likely, however, that both the quality and the magnitude of the reading for most adolescents can be substantially increased with sustained effort on the part of teachers and schools.

Summary

Literary study does receive attention in these schools, for an average of 52 percent of classroom time emphasizes this aspect of English. In certain schools and with certain classes, the teaching of literature is particularly distinguished. Programs vary considerably in the quality of the books taught, in the ways of organizing instruction, and in many of the approaches to teaching. More important than any particular overall

organization for programs in literature seems to be the extent to which the program provides for the careful study and close reading of individual texts, and supports this close reading with a broadly based program of guided individual reading. Classroom libraries seem almost indispensable in providing access to worthwhile reading selections. Exciting examples of analysis and discussion were reported from schools in all sections of the country, but even more widespread was confusion on the part of many teachers over the nature of close reading and ways of translating into classroom practice the knowledge about the critical reading of literature which they had acquired in college courses.

In many of these schools teachers have achieved considerable success in teaching literature. As one teacher explained, "Fundamental to the teaching of literature is a teacher and a book. That is the way we approach literature here." And the observer agreed: "The four teachers all said to their classes, in effect, 'Look, we are all questioning the human condition. This book or play--Macbeth, The Scarlet Letter, Lord of the Flies--may tell us something about the human condition.' These teachers expect their students to have adult motivations. There was no talking down and no phony talking up. They shared their students' wonder and helped each other eliminate their mutual ignorance. They looked at language and style and structure as well as theme and idea. The meaning of the book grew into something he has not seen before for anyone, teacher or student." This surely is the teaching of literature at its best.

CHAPTER V

THE TEACHING OF COMPOSITION

Certainly the most elusive and difficult component of any English program to assess is the teaching of composition. Teachers and specialists alike recognize the problem of measuring growth in writing skill and fluency, and perhaps because of this inability to observe increments of growth, teachers find less appeal in composition than in some other aspects of English. One of the difficulties faced by observers was that of trying to characterize individual programs of composition. Although corrected class sets of papers were usually made available to visitors during their one or two day stay, and although these papers were solicited with the understanding that they would be typical efforts of students, there is reason to believe that in a number of instances the papers had been hand-picked to show both students and teachers to their best advantage. Observers were also hampered by limitations of time; and they could not always read all of the papers at hand. However, these papers supplemented by interviews with students and teachers afforded direct knowledge about the program; indirect data concerning the frequency of writing, and the emphasis and point of view in writing instruction came from questionnaires.

The most discouraging conclusion to be deduced from analyzing the data concerning instruction in writing is that there is simply very little of it. On the basis of classroom observation, teachers of all levels in all schools combined spent only 15.7 percent of their class time emphasizing composition. There was slight variation among grade levels, and even less between those groups considered terminal and those labeled college preparatory, but the relatively small incidence of teaching directed to writing improvement came

as a surprise to observers. Moreover, the bulk of the instruction during the 15.7 percent of total class time devoted to writing was instruction after the fact--after papers had been written.

The primary process of writing instruction is through having students write compositions, followed by teacher "correction," and the subsequent return of the essays--in many cases to be read by students and revised. This is a time honored system in the schools and college, and will doubtless continue to carry much of the weight of instruction in composition. However, this is a tenuous chain of action and reaction which, like the chain letters of a decade or two ago, is only useful if all links follow in orderly progression. From the observation of project visitors the chain is seldom continuous; and the system was more often honored in the breach than in the execution. Quite aside from any thought of frequency of writing, or from the sequence given to the assignments (other chains of significance) the process of assignment, writing, correcting and revising is usually broken and the result of these abortive efforts is, at best, a fragmentary learning about how to write.

The Correction and Annotation of Papers

A sampling of thousands of papers that had presumably gone through the complete cycle revealed that one-third had not been revised in any way; another third with "gross" errors of spelling and usage corrected. Only in some 12 percent of the high schools had most students revised their writing completely in response to teacher "correction." There was no way to determine statistically, of course, how effective this entire process was either with the minority of students who revised or with the vast majority who did not. In spite of the lack of empirical knowledge, however, there can be little doubt that those students who are forced to think back

through their first writing and then rework the original into something better must gain in fluency and precision.¹

To most teachers, correcting papers is synonymous with teaching writing. As evidence of this attitude is their response to questions posed during the interview with entire English departments. One of these questions has to do with the proportion of teaching time or emphasis on composition. To this query, the most typical response was that teachers would be quite happy to devote more time and emphasis to composition (up to 50 percent of their time), but it was impossible under existing conditions of class load. In other words, there was simply not time to correct more papers than were currently being produced. According to individual questionnaires, teachers spend an average of 9-12 hours per week reading and correcting papers (Chapter II, Table 32), certainly a sizeable proportion of time considering other demands of class preparations and professional obligations. Similarly, students report that they submit a theme on an average of once a week (Table 70). Practice varies, of course, but able senior students tend to write more frequently than that and tenth-grade students somewhat less often. It is difficult to imagine how this enormous paper load might be increased and still have any significance for either student or teacher. The average English teacher in these schools meets about 130 pupils daily (Chapter II, Table 31). If the teacher spends as much as 8.6 minutes in annotating each theme, the average number of minutes which Dusel reported required "to teach writing and thinking,"² then eighteen hours weekly would

¹Richard Braddock, Richard Lloyd Jones and Lowell Schoer, Research in Written Composition (Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963), pp. 35-36.

²A good discussion of such programs appears in Virginia Burke, The Lay Reader Program: Backgrounds and Procedures (Milwaukee, Wisc.: Wisconsin Council of Teachers of English, 1961).

be required for paper correction alone. Obviously teachers must either read papers less carefully than desirable or find other ways of reducing class load.

Table 70

Frequency of Writing Experiences Reported by Students*
(n = 2,317 twelfth-grade students)

Frequency	Number	Percentage
Twice a Week	718	30.8
Once a Week	1,010	43.5
Once Every Two Weeks	354	15.3
Once Every Three Weeks	75	3.2
Once a Month	29	1.2
Less Than Once a Month	3	0.1
Did Not Answer	<u>138</u>	<u>5.9</u>
Total	2,317	100.0

*Writing assignments of a paragraph or longer.

Any policy relating to the amount of frequency of student writing is inevitably tied in large measure to the teacher load and class size. English teachers in the participating public schools have a more favorable teacher load than their counterparts in the great majority of schools elsewhere. The average number of pupils per teacher is slightly less than 130 compared to a national average of around 150.³ Typically, English teachers in the survey report that they teach four classes per day although they have a number of other school day obligations ranging from homeroom and

³Committee on National Interest, The National Interest and the Teaching of English, pp. 98-99.

study hall assignments to a responsibility for presenting assembly programs and preparing high school annals. Unfortunately, some teachers, even in this sampling, are expected to teach writing to as many as 170 to 200 pupils whom they see every day in as many as six different classes. It would be irresponsible criticism to assert that teachers with such a load are not doing justice to one of the main elements of English instruction. The simple fact is that they cannot.

One method for reducing the paper load of classroom teachers is to employ lay readers, a practice that is being followed in a significant number of high schools across the country. Among those schools participating in the National Study, some 20 percent indicated that readers were being used in respective English departments in one degree or another.

In larger districts, readers are assigned to schools after they had satisfied certain requisites, including the successful completion of a qualifying examination. In the case of schools in smaller, more autonomous districts, readers are employed directly on the basis of personal contact and previous experience--more often than not being former English teachers in the individual schools.

There seems to be no direct relationship between the frequency or quantity of student writing and the use of readers. Although many able senior students indicate as many as two assignments per week, the most usual response is one per week with a small minority reflecting something less. It is probably impractical to assume that outside readers will upgrade a school's writing program merely by increasing the frequency of writing. What they can do is to relieve the laborious burden of correction to allow the teachers more time for the teaching of writing. If classroom teachers must spend ten or more hours a week reading papers, they have substantially

less time to prepare thoughtful and purposeful lessons. No doubt this demand has much to do with the sometimes superficial marking that observers noticed on sets of papers.

Lay reader programs differ in a number of respects. In some, readers always remain behind the scenes, in a few instances transacting most of the paper exchange through the mail; in others, readers are required to visit classes when writing assignments are made, or even to hold conferences with students. Rarely do readers grade and correct more than a minority of student papers, and usually teachers review grading by sampling a number of papers from each set marked by a reader. In some programs, notably in the so-called Rutgers' plan, graders are assigned to specific teachers and classes--i.e., those classes following the Rutgers' plan in other respects.⁴ Less structured programs allow several teachers to call upon a reader as they require and as the reader is available.

In consideration of the most serious weaknesses in composition programs generally--that the poorest of them lack any viable structure or sequence--and in view of the project staff's observation of a number of lay reader programs, several generalizations can be made. Better programs enlist the services of very able readers. Whether readers have had much background in literature is not as material as their being able to write well themselves, to recognize problems that others might have, and to translate their analysis of these problems in an understandable way to high school students. Frequently, but not always, such people were themselves English teachers, or they had some allied training. The best programs are structured to some extent. Readers are asked to work closely with one or at most two teachers

⁴Paul Diederich, "The Rutgers' Plan for Cutting Class Size in Two," loc. cit.

on a regular basis. They are given time to observe some teaching to familiarize themselves with the different capabilities of students and to know the teaching methods used by teachers they will work with. In better programs the lay readers are more than proofreaders. They will use marginal and end comments to encourage and sustain good efforts as often as they point to errors in mechanics and usage. Writing does not proceed from a vacuum; it is invariably based on previous experience and instruction. To the extent that the reader is familiar with the whole context of the course and the tenor of the individual class she will be able to read student papers more effectively. Therefore a series of conferences between reader and teacher and, when possible, between reader and students would enhance the effectiveness of the composition reader.

It is clear enough to most responsible educators that readers are not a panacea. They can make a good writing program better, but they cannot improve a poor one without some concerted internal efforts. Teachers must still teach writing. To simply hoist onto others the burden of reading and correcting without accepting the responsibility of continuous instruction is to renege on the contract implicit in bringing in outside readers in the first place.

From interviews with students who have had experience with theme readers, there are mixed reactions. Interestingly, some students are delighted with the notion that an "outsider," someone who doesn't know them, will read their papers and pass judgment from what they believe to be a more objective point of view. Other students prefer the more intimate touch, and object to their work being read by anyone other than the teacher. It is fair to say that the most general student response to the employment of theme readers is negative, but not overwhelmingly so.

When queried about the importance of lay readers to a successful writing program, teachers revealed no clear consensus as indicated in Table 71.

Table 71

Teacher Attitudes Toward Use of Lay Readers
(n = 1,331 teachers)

Attitude	Percentage
Absolutely Essential	8.6
Very Important	19.8
Of Some Importance	30.3
Not Very Important	26.0
Detrimental	10.1
No Response	5.2

About all that can be said of these responses is that for a sizeable proportion of the teaching community (18.7 percent) feelings run very high. During department interviews, the subject of lay readers came up with some regularity in response to the question of how departments might spend a sum of money added to their department's budget. On the basis of frequency of mention, lay readers appeared well down the list, after such items as recordings, overhead projectors, supplementary books and clerical help. From these responses it is clear that most teachers do not view the establishment of lay reader programs with any great urgency and most are quite emphatic in stating that funds might better be spent to reduce the overall load in terms of students per teacher than to inaugurate such a program.

Whether outside help is utilized in annotating student papers, it is clear that teachers differ considerably in the time they devote to such tasks. Equally clear is the fact that those teachers who devote considerable time to annotating student themes possess different attitudes toward the

subject and students than do teachers who devote less time. When responses on the teacher questionnaire (Instrument No. 21) are compared for teachers devoting more than four hours per week to correcting papers with teachers who spend less than four hours per week in such activity, some interesting differences emerge. Surprisingly, those who spend less time correcting papers also spend less time conferring with students, some 75 percent reporting they devote four hours or less to student conferences compared with 75 percent devoting four to eight hours in the former group.

A smaller percentage of teachers who spend less time in correcting papers also rate instruction in composition as "the most important aspect" of the high school English program (28.8 percent to 45.5 percent for the teachers who spend more time on correction.) Similarly, the low correction group is slightly less interested in college courses in advanced composition (76.5 percent to 80.8 percent); in language textbooks (46.3 percent compared with 55.1 percent); and in language handbooks (15.9 percent contrasted with 31.3 percent); and in the value of duplicating machines (56.1 percent to 64.1 percent). In contrast to teachers who spend more time annotating papers, however, the group that is less interested in paper correction responds more favorably to motion picture projectors (45.5 percent compared with 41.4 percent), tape recorders (31 percent compared with 22.3 percent), and a manual for teaching (39.4 percent compared with 31.3 percent).

In a subject as complex as English, it may be well that teachers are interested in so many different emphases. Students may encounter a stress on composition one year, on literature the next. The comparison of responses of the two teacher groups to the questionnaire suggest the real possibility that one group of teachers spends less time on paper correction because they fail to accept the importance of instruction in composition.

They are less interested in advanced study in this area or in conferring with students. Such teachers may well be more interested in teaching literature; almost surely they are somewhat more interested in classroom activities which involve the use of various audio-visual aids than in those which have to do with developing student proficiency in composing.

Individual English departments must give more thought to their objectives and practices in the teaching of student writing. Much that project observers have seen suggests little more than mechanical activity: assignments manufactured to suit the time of week or year; compositions written to specifications given in numbers of words; corrections consisting of cryptic symbols and relating to the mechanics of writing rather than to its substance. In reviewing those student compositions made available to them, observers noted that two-thirds of the papers were "corrected" from a negative point of view involving only checking of faults or assigning grades. In only 17 percent of the schools could they say that the teacher comments were designed to teach writing and thinking--the avowed purpose in the whole cycle of writing, correcting and revising. All things considered it must follow that whatever learning occurs in actual practice, more often than not, comes by way of accident rather than design.

In responding to a question concerning the emphasis placed on instruction in writing, department chairmen indicated that the element of primary importance was organization of ideas; secondly, clear thinking or logic. These concerns rated well ahead of such matters as diction, style, originality and somewhat ahead of the more pedestrian quality of "correctness" of usage and mechanics. Similarly, when asked to give priority to criteria for evaluating student writing, chairmen considered clarity of thought and organization, appropriate development, and sentence structure.

to be of greatest importance in descending order. However laudable and valuable this great concern is for logic, thought and organization, the plain fact is that there is very little of such instruction extant in the high schools. As suggested above, the great bulk of the comments and corrections found on students' papers have to do with correcting faults in spelling, sentence structure and mechanics--with proofreading rather than teaching. Moreover, the majority of revisions by students are directed toward these matters to the exclusion of such elements as organization, logic or even content. Quite obviously, the principle of teaching is lost in the execution. If there is little instruction in these important matters by way of teacher comments and individual papers, where else do students learn about them?

The Focus of Instruction

One source of instruction, of course, is the occasional or systematic use of textbooks. In this regard, only 28.4 percent of the teachers interviewed indicated that they "usually" or "regularly" made use of such texts; approximately half of the teachers said that they used composition books "occasionally" or "infrequently"; and a substantial number (13 percent) stated that they "never" used texts to teach writing (Table 72). From statistically less solid grounds, project observers reported that they seldom saw composition texts in use, although they were often in evidence. Ironically, in view of the limited use made of these texts, most schools require that students possess them, either through their own purchase or through school supply. If composition texts are, in fact, so little used on the national scale as they were in the project sample, (and there is no reason to assume there is any great difference), the issue is raised of the considerable public expense for these books vs. their slight instructional

Table 72

Use of Textbooks and Workbooks in Teaching Composition
(n = 370 teacher interviews)

	Usually or Regularly		Occasionally or Infrequently		Never		Uncertain Did Not Answer	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Use of Language- Composition Texts	105	28.4	189	51.1	47	12.7	29	7.8
Use of Workbooks or Drillbooks	38	10.3	72	19.5	188	50.7	72	19.5

When asked whether they preferred any other text, fewer than 10 percent of the teachers could specify another book.

use. One problem in this regard is that books are frequently purchased from lists by local school boards or state authorities, a fact that can militate against a teacher's using a book which he feels to be inferior. Significantly, however, most teachers who indicated disaffection for those composition-grammar books which were authorized could not suggest other titles they thought would be an improvement. Among those interviewed, only 10 percent would or could specify another book. Perhaps one reason for their inability to point to other texts is the relative scarcity of high school composition texts that are significantly different from those that the teacher has at hand.⁵

A content analysis of some fourteen series of composition-grammar textbooks by James Lynch and Bertrand Evans⁶ several years ago reveals an interesting parallel between the emphasis given to instruction in composition as indicated in the National Study, to the proportion of instructional material as evidenced by the number of pages given to composition and rhetoric in the texts. In contrast to the number of pages given to matters of grammar, usage and mechanics in the composite total pages of these books (39.4 percent) is the slight emphasis on writing (18.8 percent), i.e., pages dealing in any way with writing beyond the sentence. In view of the surprisingly small attention to writing in the composition texts and the correspondingly small number of teachers who consistently use these texts for instruction in composition, one might wonder whether the frequency that observers saw composition being taught was somehow a function of the

⁵Within the last two years, however, several companies have offered new texts that are different with respect to their viewpoint concerning language and the emphasis given to instruction in writing.

⁶James J. Lynch and Bertrand Evans, High School English Textbooks: A Critical Examination (Boston, Mass.: Little Brown and Co., 1963).

sheer quantity (to say nothing of the quality) of treatment reflected in available textbooks. Similarly, the whole mode of teacher correction suggests a rationale in the same direction as that implied in the textbooks: about two-thirds to problems of grammar-mechanics-usage and a much less significant proportion to the rhetoric, the development and organization of writing. Although department chairmen and well-meaning English teachers feel that the latter are of greater value, these matters are clearly not receiving the kind of priority that most teachers would hope for.

Lynch and Evans also bewail the fact that the composition texts generally do not offer any clear differentiation between the approach to composition from year to year. Typically, the same series will list topics of approximately the same kind through the entire four years of high school; usually these topics are unrelated to literature and concentrate instead on experience or ideas which are assumed to be very close to the students' own immediate concerns. While a glance through almost any of these series would corroborate these assertions, the observation of school programs, including the reading of sample sets of papers, proves that, in most cases, teachers do make numerous assignments on literary topics, many of them in the upper high school years of a very sophisticated nature. Of those papers reviewed by project observers, at least twice as many were based on literature as upon all other subjects, including personal experiences, the social sciences generally, or on imaginative topics involving "creative writing." Although no absolute data were tabulated in this regard, teachers generally expressed the view that a good writing program should allow for diverse kinds of writing experiences, including exposition, argumentation, description, and narration, but that literature should "very often" be the source from which such writing is generated.

From time to time, the general criticism of high school writing is heard bearing on the disproportion of "creative" writing to the more viable and academically respectable assignments in exposition. Indeed, some critics would, in Procrustean fashion, lop off all such writing as extraneous to the legitimate concern of the high school, insisting that appropriate expository assignments based on literature will offer enough meat to feed the creative impulses of high school students. From the point of view of the project's staff and observers, however, this position is so extreme as to be untenable. For one thing, examples of creative writing were found much less frequently than any other kind among the papers given to them for review. In descending order students wrote on: (1) literary topics; (2) subjects close to their own experience; (3) non-literary subjects requiring special information; and (4) various subjects classified as "creative writing." For another reason, able students place a high premium on some free writing assignments, where they are not held rigidly to a pattern, a length, or a subject predetermined by their instructors. It may well be that this response is a reaction to heavy doses of routinized assignments and mechanical instruction that characterize so much composition teaching. In the opinion of the project staff, the occasional experience of creating a poem or story can carry extrinsic dividends of considerable worth. It is often this experience that remains with an individual after he has forgotten his more pedestrian writing efforts. Moreover, such assignments can contribute to a student's awareness and appreciation of the form and language of literature. Too many students plod through years of literary study without developing anything but a pseudo-sophisticated knowledge about literature. The opportunity to create something even remotely literary may not turn the student into an artist, but it should help him to develop an appreciation of the distinctions between the language and conventions

of literature and the language and conventions of his own immediate world. While the project staff does not recommend sudden, wholesale, and capricious efforts in the direction of unstructured writing, they do see the value of occasional assignments in the area known as creative writing. Parenthetically, a significant proportion (61 percent) of younger teachers (i.e., those with fewer than five years' experience) feel that all students should occasionally be expected to write stories or poems. A substantially smaller proportion (42 percent) of teachers favor such writing experiences. Whether the note of protest against creative writing and the emphasis on expository themes by committees of the NCTE and the CEEB Commission on English has changed a previously distorted pattern, or whether such writing has never been overly emphasized in the better schools of the country, the National Study reveals no need for a radical shift in the kinds of writing being asked of students in most of the cooperating high schools.

Continuity and Sequence

As suggested above, most of the instructional time and attention devoted to composition entails an analysis (whether it is superficial or comprehensive) of the finished product. With few exceptions, any concerted efforts of English departments have been directed to setting standards for grading or for establishing requirements for student writing in terms of numbers of words or assignments. Although courses of study proclaim worthy enough objectives relating to "improving abilities" or "increasing writing skills," the project staff found only insufficient thought and effort given to how a student's writing ability can be improved. As a result school programs often reflect a lack of focus on

the process or sequence of writing in favor of the product of writing and many programs need internal coherence to bring together their diverse parts. In most programs, the writing experiences of students suffer from one or both of two serious faults: redundancy and fragmentation. Students are therefore inclined to view the program in composition as a disconnected series of activities without sequence or continuity, and they can scarcely be charged with laxity or backsliding if they appear to write on the same subjects in the same way that was successful for them two years previously. If growth or improvement are what are wanted from students, means to those ends should be built into the program.

One method of encouraging continuity and progression open to every teacher is the use of cumulative folders or notebooks to contain all of the consequential pieces that a student writes. This procedure had been in use in many of the cooperating schools, and teachers were generally in favor of the practice, since it gave them an opportunity to observe student progress over a considerable period of time. Some departments had gone even further to the point that selected pieces of writing were preserved over a three or four year period, giving teachers (and students too) evidence of improvement and continuity over a much longer period. In either case, the availability of a number of efforts enhanced the value of student-teacher conferences on whatever basis they could be arranged. Although this device can give an important perspective on the relative growth of individual students, it is at best a round-about method of insuring sequence and continuity within a school's composite writing program.

Perhaps as a result of the currently popular theory of the spiral curriculum, a number of schools have written new courses of study, frequently called "sequential guides" to composition. Inherent in the design of these

programs is the principle that the important skills of writing are developed incrementally. This does not imply that the ninth-grade students learn all there is to know about constructing sentences; tenth-grade students the paragraph; the juniors a multiparagraph composition. The guides emphasize more than differences of length and subject. Typically, they will provide for from twenty to fifty writing experiences for each grade level, from which some twelve to twenty will be chosen by the individual teacher, depending on the needs and capabilities of the class. At all levels students are required to write narration, description, exposition, and argumentation. At the ninth grade, there is likely to be a greater emphasis on narration and description; at the twelfth there is a noticeable shift to more complex forms of exposition and more subtle kinds of argumentation. Many writing assignments are clearly related to the literature taught at particular grade levels, and at times students are asked to emulate the style of an author--to write "in the manner of" John Buchan or E. B. White, for example, while developing a personal essay. Sequential composition guides differ to the extent they include other apparatus: standards for grading; a style sheet for students; a glossary of technical terms. Some contain explicit directions to teachers and list a series of questions giving direction to the class discussion preceding the writing experience; others depend on the teacher and the general context of each course to motivate the sequential assignments. With the shortcomings of composition textbooks as noted above, it is important that high school departments focus on this essential area and determine what principles are to be taught in what order. Simply to determine how many compositions should be required of each grade level begs all of the critical questions with respect to learning how to write better.

The Term Paper

The high school "research" paper or term paper is a fairly well entrenched requirement of many programs of English. Some 71.7 percent of the teachers in the Study schools support such a requirement once in each student's high school career.⁷ Although there is no discernible pattern for such papers, ranging as they do among subjects in literature, history, politics, science and everyday affairs, and varying in depth and scope, the tradition is somehow maintained that college bound students should be submitted to the process of gathering information, taking notes, and preparing a long paper anywhere from five to fifty pages long. For some time, the value of this process has been questioned by many high school teachers and college English instructors on the grounds that such writing is frequently a waste of time--time that might more profitably be spent on other aspects of composition or on the study of literature and language. Such writing, it is claimed, is in no sense research, and more often than not results in virtual dishonesty when students plagiarize source material. The critics point out that instruction in writing the long paper not only breeds dishonesty but superficiality: teachers are prone to emphasize the mechanical aspects of taking notes, preparing footnotes and bibliographies to the exclusion of processes of thought or logical development; subjects are unrelated to any other aspects of English, often turning to the trivial or transitory; few high schools have libraries that are adequate to the demands of research.

These arguments are countered by individuals who believe in the merits

⁷See the discussion of "Attitudes Toward the Teaching of English" in Chapter XI.

of such assignments. Many teachers feel that it is profitable for a student to pursue a subject in depth and to sustain his best writing efforts in an extended paper. In the process, it is assumed that he will learn much about the library and about using source material. Furthermore, the term paper advocates state that other academic departments expect students to know the proper form and procedure for the writing of a long source paper and their colleagues regard the English class as the appropriate place for such instruction. Supporters also claim that former students return from college to tell them how useful this instruction has been in their beginning college course, to some extent refuting the frequently made criticism that college departments of English do not expect freshmen to be knowledgeable about term papers, and, in fact, would prefer that incoming students be taught other things instead.

In any case, the long source paper is still a major effort in many high school English programs. To some students and teachers, the work is so prestigious that the product has been labeled the "senior thesis," suggesting a considerable aping of a legitimate college practice and probably a degree of veneration found rarely in other pursuits within the whole content of English. College English departments or spokesmen of the profession to the contrary, some 72 percent of all teachers queried feel that all college bound students should be expected to write a term paper (or a research paper) before high school graduation. Rather surprisingly, it is the group of experienced teachers who are more prone to question its educational validity, only 65 percent approving as against 76 percent of the teachers with fewer than six years of experience.

The most profitable means of resolving this dilemma is to enquire to what extent the research paper requirement helps students to become more able writers in the whole scheme of individual composition programs. Only

from this perspective can individual teachers and departments satisfactorily determine whether their efforts at instruction as well as their students' long labors offer an efficient vehicle for writing improvement.

Such a perspective, of course, was not available to the members of the National Study because of its very nature. However, from the fragmentary and limited observation of this aspect of the writing program, a number of inferences can be made about the general practice of requiring long source papers of high school students.

Individually, many observers read some long papers that would suggest the manifest worth of such assignments. Selected samples showed that a number of high school students are capable of writing sustained, coherent and comprehensive papers of some length. The difficult thing to assess, because of limited observation, is the process that enabled some students to progress so far. However, it is fair to say that the best efforts did not simply happen spontaneously, but resulted from related practice and instruction. Before a long and rigorous writing assignment was thrust upon them as seniors, they had been asked to write themes of varying lengths and kinds throughout their entire high school careers. Quite obviously the best efforts were produced by students who had dealt with source material before, students who had some experience in organizing their own ideas and sustaining a level of discourse for more than a paragraph or two. In contrast to the better samples, of course, were many others that suffered from all of the ills of bad writing and dishonest thinking imaginable but compounded in these respects because of the demand for length. Unless the long paper evolves from other written assignments over a period of years, and unless the subject matter of these efforts has some relationship to English (or else has some immediacy to related disciplines), observers feel that the instructional time might better be spent on other writing. The

crash programs which they occasionally witnessed, where students were thrown into the school library to fend for themselves but somehow produce twenty pages of prose in two weeks are not worthwhile educational pursuits: nor is mere instruction on the formal aspects of note-taking, footnoting and manuscript form per se. Unless the whole enterprise grows from roots which have already been nourished by other work in English, there is more to be believed from the critics than from the supporters of long source papers. To consider instruction on the long paper as a necessary end in itself, as a service function to other high school departments, or to assumed college requirements, makes the task unrewarding and the principle unsound.

Whether or not an English department elects to make the term paper a structural part of its composition program, some consideration must be given to the problems dealing with source material. Information, opinion, and ideas are available to students in greater abundance than ever before. Collections of critical materials expand in school libraries; casebooks and paperback editions of literary works with more editorial apparatus are on the market and in the classrooms.

Serious students can find a ready supply of source materials everywhere from the public library to the corner drugstore, and there is reason to believe that this plethora of material will increase in time to come. The task, as always, is to teach students to read, weigh and use source material discretely and purposefully; but there is a new imperative because of the availability of these sources.

In addition to the increased variety of secondary (as well as primary) sources available to students and teachers is the new emphasis on individual instruction. Individualized programs imply that students will be called upon to depart from a single text to use a number of sources in the pursuit of ideas and of their own growth in using ideas from these sources.

As the movement towards individualized programs of English expands, instruction and practice in the appropriate use of these other materials becomes a necessity. In all probability such exercises in using source material will have to be introduced during the first years of high school so as to prepare students for independent study later on.

Approaches to Writing

In a small number of participating schools, the practice of school-wide "composition days" has been established, allowing for infrequent but planned occasions when all students write compositions of specified length and type. Teams of readers assess the strengths and limitations of all of these efforts, lending an objective measure to pupil improvement and a positive touchstone to the whole tenor of writing throughout the program. The most worthwhile by-product of this enterprise is that it focuses attention on this important component of English and, in spite of the mechanical aspects, it motivates students to improve their work. Too often, from the observation of visitors to schools, English departments are willing to relinquish the act of writing on final examinations in favor of the more easily corrected objective questions. Whether or not these tests are a valid measure of other aspects of the English program, they cannot measure a student's composing ability nor do they help to increase his concern for improvement. Such a device as the school-wide "composition day" can mitigate some of these shortcomings of the final objective test in English.

One other procedure that appears to be promising to the teaching of composition is the pupil-teacher conference. In department interviews, teachers concede that a systematic discussion with individual students regarding their writing would be a beneficial practice. They also point

to heavy loads of classes, obligations to police corridors or locker rooms and demands of "extracurricular" assignments that curtail after school conferences. At one school two additional English teachers were named as "composition teachers," whose sole function was to teach students singly (or in pairs) in frequent tutorial sessions. In addition to their regular English classes, the majority of students in two grade levels were assigned to one or the other of these teachers on the basis of one conference a week over the entire year. Administrators and teachers at this school are convinced enough of the worth of this program that it has continued beyond the experimental phase. Other schools that had reduced the load of English teachers to four classes per day had encouraged the use of conferences. In view of the value placed on these face to face encounters over writing and the failure of the more traditional round of paper correction, revision and review, teachers might well look more closely at methods to institute conferences on a more frequent basis than can be observed at present, even at the expense of other class activities. To be effective, of course, it is incumbent upon teachers to recognize that techniques different from those that are used in teaching a class are open to them in tutorial sessions. A conference presents an opportunity for the teacher to reach even the most reluctant writer and to come to grips with more salient problems than mere correctness.

Observers saw numerous occasions when sets of papers were returned to students during the class session, but they were struck by the very few times that teachers took advantage of these occasions to teach some facet of writing. Some teachers had prepared lists of "common errors" that were written on the board or reproduced for class correction, but very few took the time to reproduce or analyze an entire paragraph or theme in this

fashion. Significantly, even fewer teachers used opaque or overhead projectors to facilitate a common study of the larger aspects of composition--of organization, logic and development--those very elements which claimed high priorities on their questionnaires. In the judgment of observers, such direct instruction can fill in a much needed void in the whole effort of the teaching of writing as practiced in the schools. Another potential source of practical instruction that appears to be little used is the practice of having students read each other's papers. At the least, such a device can lead to superficial improvements in usage and mechanics; at best it contributes to an overall improvement of style. Students with a clear notion of an audience and a more immediate sense of purpose will write with a clarity and conviction that are usually lacking when they are asked simply to write.

A number of programs throughout the country are making use of models to help students achieve a better sense of direction and form in their writing. Particularly those schools with sequential programs have employed literary models (and occasionally student efforts) to suggest patterns that students can emulate. There are, of course, built in hazards to this procedure. Students will ape the originals too closely or will consider the models too far removed from their own abilities. However, the judicious use of models is a positive and valuable device in teaching students to write better. A student is influenced by reading anyway, although the influence is felt less consciously than when he is asked to write a paragraph or a longer piece "in the fashion of" another writer. In this same regard, it can prove to be a valuable experience when teachers themselves write an assignment that they have given to a class and then use the model for demonstration. Obviously discretion must also be observed in

following this practice. As an added dividend, teachers following this procedure, are made aware of some of the problems and pitfalls in writing that they are prone to overlook when they merely correct the errors of others.

Summary

The National Study of High School English Programs is more nearly a survey than a closely controlled research project. Questionnaires, interviews, and check lists were designed to reveal the main characteristics of English programs and not to measure qualitative differences. Nevertheless, the individual and collective judgments of experienced professionals (most of them professors of English and education) who visited the 158 schools have been a discrete but effective adjunct to the Study. It is from a consensus of these reports that recommendations are offered: from the judgments of professional people who have become informed of the nature and condition of high school English teaching, not only from the oblique view from the college, but from the direct knowledge of many classroom observations.

Needless to say, there are many qualitative differences among the various composition programs. Some committed departments are involved in continuous efforts to improve instruction in writing by a number of methods, whereas others make no concerted effort to make cohesive, school-wide programs, allowing individual teachers their own frequently haphazard approaches. Optimistically, from the reports of observers indicating general strengths, good programs in composition were cited fifty times, making this component the runner-up to "teaching staff" in frequency of comment (Table 36). On the other hand, inadequate programs in composition were cited forty-one times, ranking seventh in general weaknesses of English programs (Table 37).

When teachers were asked to indicate on questionnaires the aspect of English in which they felt most deficient, composition outranked all others (including literature, language, reading and speech) by a considerable margin. One reason for this deficiency is that few teachers have had specific work in writing beyond the ubiquitous freshman year requirement. However, approximately 25 percent of the teachers surveyed reported that they had taken a course in advanced composition since they began teaching, and a solid 82 percent revealed that such a college course would be of "some" or "great" importance to them. These figures suggest commitment and a professional need that is not always met. Until fairly recently, teachers were hard pressed to find colleges and universities that offered courses in advanced composition or rhetoric that would be appropriate to their level of experience and maturity. One can hardly expect professionals of some years' standing to enroll in sophomore level courses even if they could. Again there is a note of optimism heard from the newly instituted NDEA Institutes, many of which offer a composition component or, failing that, oblique instruction in the teaching of writing by way of the workshop portions. Furthermore, changing requirements of teacher preparation by universities and state departments specifically include more course work in writing and colleges have noticeably added new writing courses to their offerings.

In spite of the evidence from teachers and students (and the papers themselves) that there is much writing activity going on in most English classes, classroom observation reveals that there is very little effort directed to instruction in writing. For one reason or another, teachers depend heavily on the process of correction and revision to improve student writing. Skillful teachers with enough time to make the process significant and enough patience to complete the cycle through revision are able to

promote student achievement, not only with respect to mechanical "correctness" but to rhetorical power and stylistic flavor. Where the conditions of skill and time are not present, however, instruction through correction is extremely limited.

While teachers are generally conscientious in assigning and grading many sets of papers there is a clear lack of consistent and progressive instruction in writing. After observing a large number of high school English classes, one can easily get the impression that compositions are often assigned in lieu of any ordered classroom instruction, as though mere practice were all that was needed. The project staff is convinced that the quality of the writing assignments, the care taken by the teacher in correcting the paper, and the continuing dialogue between writer and reader are of greater importance than frequency of writing. Moreover, unless these qualities are an integral part of the writing program, it is distinctly possible that frequent, but routinized writing assignments inspire little more than trivial efforts that cannot promote growth in writing ability.

To add confusion to neglect, teachers are in no clear agreement about methods and priorities in teaching students to write. The responses of students and teachers to a check list of concepts which might be taught at various levels (Instrument No. 8) indicates clearly that concepts related to rhetoric and composition are only inconsistently presented; some are overtaught; some are not taught at all (Table 42). Although a good deal of research has been undertaken on the teaching of writing, most of it seems tangential to the immediate problems of classroom teachers and few of the findings are easily translatable to classroom technique. Indeed, some research appears superficially to be in conflict with the

claims of other research. As indicated in the Braddock report,⁸ there is a manifest need for more controlled research in a number of basic areas related to the teaching of composition.

Confusion about conflicting ideas and ignorance of research, however, are sometimes forwarded as easy rationalization. A little knowledge (and imagination too) can be useful as well as dangerous. We cannot wait in expectation of the seminal study on the teaching of writing; we can combine knowledge, experience and intuition to develop meaningful programs of writing in the high school. To take the position (as some individual teachers have) that writing "cannot be taught," or that the process is too mysterious for words, or that it has no more sequence and content than a bag of tricks, is strangely inconsistent with the general pattern of educational philosophy in our time.

⁸Richard Braddock, et al, op. cit. See especially Chapter III, "The State of Knowledge about Composition," pp. 29-53.

CHAPTER VI

THE TEACHING OF LANGUAGE

Of the three major components of English, language is clearly the least well taught in the schools visited in the Study. Indeed, so little attention is directed to the English language in many programs, that what does represent language teaching seems largely unplanned. Virtually all data secured from project staff members, teachers, and students substantiate this overall observation.

Programs in language were seldom cited as special strengths in culmulative reports from observers. Among the twelve most frequently reported strengths were programs in composition, No. 2; literature, No. 5.5; reading, No. 9; and even speech and oral programs, No. 12 (Chapter III, Table 36). In contrast, programs in language were mentioned fifth most frequently as an overall weakness by the observers (Chapter III, Table 37), more often than either the teaching of composition or the teaching of literature. Only concern for general administrative problems and supervisory planning seemed to observers to be a more glaring weakness; i.e., inadequate departmental leadership, inadequate provision for slow learners, lack of general sequence and integration, and unreasonable teaching loads.

Nor do teachers of students appear to regard the programs in language as particular strengths. In personal interviews, few of the 438 teachers mentioned the teaching of language as a strength, although many pointed proudly to work in literature or composition (Chapter III, Table 50). Moreover, these same teachers, when asked to suggest possible changes in the English curriculum, frequently mentioned changes urgently needed in programs for the teaching of language (Chapter III, Table 51). Students, too,

recommended changes in this aspect of the program, though revealing at the same time uncertainty and differences of opinion in regard to possible modifications. Of 2,317 twelfth-grade college preparatory students completing the questionnaire, 226 called for more or at least improved language instruction, and 130 asked for less. Moreover, only 17 of the 99 advanced twelfth-grade classes interviewed by the project staff indicated that their instruction in language had been particularly beneficial, whereas 60 classes mentioned the value of literary study and 39 classes mentioned composition (Chapter III, Table 55).

The Confused Situation in Language

One reason for the apparent inadequacy of programs may be that so little time is devoted to actual study of language. In the 1,609 classes visited by the project staff, only 4,386 minutes or 13.5 percent of the teaching time emphasized language. The relative emphasis dropped from 21.5 percent in Grade 10, where one-third more time is devoted to language study than to composition, to only 8.4 percent in Grade 12, about half of the emphasis given to composition. The relative emphasis on language study in classes for terminal or non-college students is slightly higher (19.9 percent) than in classes in general. Even for these students, however, the emphasis is not quite half of what is apportioned to the teaching of literature (Chapter III, Tables 38, 39, 40).

The overwhelming majority of teachers in these schools view the fundamental concern of English instruction to be literature and composition. The study of language, reading, and speech--to mention only three other aspects--are considered as largely supporting study. The data presented in Table 73 make this attitude clear, as some 1,331 teachers indicate overwhelmingly on a questionnaire that language study at best receives

third priority attention and, in some schools and classrooms, may even receive less attention than does the teaching of reading and speech.

Table 73

Aspects of English Ranked in Importance of
Emphasis by Teachers of English
(n = 1,331 teachers)

Rank Order Percentage Responding	First Priority in Instruction	Second Priority in Instruction	Third Priority in Instruction
1	Literature (36 percent)	Composition (33 percent)	Reading (15 percent)
2	Composition (41 percent)	Literature (29 percent)	Language (9 percent)
3	Language (32 percent)	Speech (16 percent)	Literature (14 percent)

The most dramatic evidence of the confusion in language instruction was obtained through the concept check list (Chapter III, Table 42). Administered separately to department chairmen and to twelfth-grade classes, the check list proved less helpful in revealing common agreements about inclusion, exclusion, and sequence than in distinguishing between those conceptually-based topics which are widely taught and those which are not. Results make clear, for example, that however programs in literature may vary from place to place, more than 90 percent of all schools do teach certain basic concepts associated with literature study--metaphor, imagery, blank verse, satire, epic, etc. The extent of the agreement is notable. Equally revealing is the comparative absence of agreement over concepts associated with the study of language. According to students, any direct consideration of levels of abstraction is unknown in 70 percent of the schools; determiners are not mentioned in 91 percent; among other language concepts not introduced in a high percentage of schools are slanting

(43.5 percent), argumentation (35 percent), jargon (16 percent), nominative absolutes (43.5 percent), consistency of diction (38 percent), euphemism (36.5 percent), sentence patterns (38 percent). Department chairmen more frequently report the teaching of these concepts than do students; even the chairmen, however, are aware that language concepts are less regularly emphasized than those involved in literary study. Indeed, the impressive finding is less the exact percentage than the sharp discrepancy revealed between attention to literary concepts and to those associated with language.

The confusion in current programs is mirrored in the attitudes of teachers. In both formal and informal interviews of individuals and departments, teachers expressed concern about changing developments in English language instruction. Many felt inadequately prepared in this area and expressed hope that summer school, institutes, or extension courses would soon be available to clarify their understandings. Indeed, when asked to specify areas of need in continuing education, some 71 percent indicated considerable interest in advanced study of structural or generative grammar, making such advanced study the eighth most frequently requested offering. An additional 66 percent expressed some interest in studying the history of the language (Chapter II, Table 18). More than a few, of course, also expressed the usual dissatisfaction with current trends in language study, rationalized the "do nothing" attitudes in their schools on the grounds that "Teachers must wait until the linguists agree" or "We are waiting for a textbook that will really explain modern grammar to students." For such "teacher proof" textbooks, the schools will wait a very long time indeed. One disappointing discovery was the absence of attention to the linguistic aspects of literary study. In view of the strong emphasis on literature in many of these programs, a greater concern with the language of literature--with the choice of words to express key images, with the texture of

language, with rhetorical and expressive features--might be expected. Only an occasional teacher seemed to concern himself with such matters, however, perhaps because only an occasional teacher concerned himself with the processes of close reading. As linguists increasingly apply their insights into language to the study of literature, secondary teachers will necessarily need to consider classroom applications. Moreover, the study of the language of literature offers an important bridge between the literary and linguistic components of the English program.

In no area of language is confusion greater, standards more variable, and differences more apparent than in the teaching of usage. No statement on the issues questionnaire elicited such disparate responses as the following: "Because language patterns vary constantly according to use, it is unrealistic to insist on a single standard of usage among students." Of the 1,481 teachers polled, some 42 percent agreed, 43 percent disagreed, and 15 percent were undecided. Teachers with sixteen or more years of teaching experience agreed much more extensively (47 percent) than did teachers with five or fewer years of experience (38 percent). Inasmuch as the younger teachers are more likely to have completed college courses in modern grammar and usage, their tendency to be less supportive than experienced teachers of the point of view expressed in the statement is surprising. Presumably beginning teachers should acquire in any formal study of modern grammar and usage some understanding of geographical and social variations in usage and of the complexity, yet the necessity, of identifying some appropriate, yet flexible, standard of usage for instructional purposes. Still, experienced teachers, many of whom had not completed formal courses in language, tend to be more sophisticated in their views. As this finding is viewed in relation to the study of teacher

evaluation of composition (See Chapter V), it seems possible to advance the hypotheses that some teachers, especially the more experienced, tend to stress overall effectiveness in communication rather than grammatical accuracy. Insistence on a single standard may seem to them a futile cause. These teachers tend in their instruction to stress apparently more basic aspects of language and composition--content, logic, development--rather than more easily criticized but less important errors in mechanics and usage.

The directors of the Study do not quarrel with this point of view. Indeed, like most observers, they applaud the efforts of strong teachers in the stronger programs to stress effectiveness in communication. They do not believe, however, that such emphasis is not possible in programs which also provide for an intelligent sequence of study in the English language. The discovery that a majority of English teachers is confused about the nature and study of the English language is not a new revelation; for at least a decade articles and publications have directed attention to this fact.¹ What is surprising is the discovery that in these selected high school programs, so little is presently being done to alleviate the confusion. According to linguists and specialists in language, a well-designed school program in the English language will contain, in addition to the study of grammar and usage, some attention to dialect study, lexicography, the history of the language, semantics, and perhaps phonology. Yet such a broad conception of language study has yet to permeate the thinking of any but a very few teachers. The majority still confuse the study of grammar and usage, talk about "functional grammar,"

¹See, for example, the two reports of the Committee on National Interest, op. cit.

by which they ordinarily mean an "error-based" approach to assigning drills based on student papers, and provide instruction in the most haphazard way. To judge by the data collected in this Study, the nation's specialists on the teaching of the English language have yet to persuade teachers in these secondary schools that the study of the language is more than a minor adjunct to the total program in English.

Representative Programs

The discouraging findings reported here are not intended to suggest that specialists on the teaching of language have had little effect on the teaching of English. Quite clearly two decades of empirical research revealing that traditional schoolroom grammar contributes little to the improvement of student writing has had a substantial influence.² Most department heads and supervisors "know" that grammar does not influence writing; some even apologize for admitting any grammatical study to the program, but do so, they claim, because of reported "demands from parents and students," "pressures from college," or insistence by teachers that young people learn "terminology" so that they can later read teacher corrections on their compositions. Few teachers interviewed in these schools accept the modern linguists' justification of the study of the English language "as a humanistic study in its own right";³ teachers may be too immediately concerned with practical problems of teaching students to

²Such studies are summarized in Henry C. Meckel, "Research in Grammar, Composition, and Literature," in Nathaniel Gage (ed.), op. cit. Also see Richard Braddock, et al, op. cit.

³See, for example, Paul Roberts, "Introduction" to the Roberts English Series (New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, 1966); or Owen Thomas' essay on "Grammar in the Schools" in Thomas, Transformational Grammar and the Teacher of English (New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, 1963), pp. 205-225; Harold B. Allen, "The Role of Language in the Curriculum"; in Bernard J. Weiss (ed.), Language, Linguistics, and School Programs (Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963), pp. 101-107.

read, to write, and to speak. Most teachers were aware of present scholarly stirrings in language. They do, after all, read the English Journal and other professional publications with some degree of regularity (See Chapter II). But what they have read seems largely to have convinced many to drop any substantial emphasis on formal study of language, rather than to substitute the study of structural or transformational grammar, for example, for traditional schoolroom grammar. In short, in the overwhelming majority of these schools, any formal and systematic study of English has been largely abandoned in Grades 10, 11, and 12. Little direct attention to the study of historical, geographical, or social aspects of language has been introduced, except incidentally in certain language books, many of which are seldom taught. What remains as language is concern with problems in syntax and usage emerging from the students' own writing and speech. Most language lessons viewed by staff members were related in some way to the writing of students. Teachers note certain widespread errors in the students' papers and elect to present remedial instruction. Errors in sentence structure especially are emphasized: parallelism, misplaced and dangling modifiers, run-together sentences, faulty reference, problems in agreement. On some occasions teachers present a series of student-written sentences for correction; on others they would merely review the problem and then ask students to turn to appropriate sections of the available language book. Whatever method is actually applied in the classroom, however pedagogically sound such an approach is to improving student writing, the method, almost universally called "functional grammar," seems more successful in helping students to analyze the English sentence in certain practical ways, than in leading him to develop basic understandings about the structure of English. Clearly it is almost accidental if a student is presented with

lessons so complete and so ordered that he is able to develop any overall conception of the basic structure of English.

If "error-based" study of certain problems in syntax is one emphasis in classroom instruction, study of English usage is the other. Often confused with grammar by teachers and students, usage involves the study of making choices between the various forms of English which are appropriate on different occasions. In few of the classrooms visited were students considering the varieties and changes in usage, the differences in social level, in situation, in geographical region, in methods of communication which dictate the appropriate form. Rather, instruction more often concentrates on isolated drill, usually written and intended to establish the patterns for using a particular usage form. Some teachers rely on lengthy exercises in workbooks and drill books; others prepare their own mimeographed drill sheets. On some occasions the drills are related directly to errors committed on student papers, much as is the study of sentence structure; more often the approach is guided by a list of usage items assigned for instruction and mastery at a particular grade level. In some schools the overall planning of a language program has focussed on identification of particular usage forms, punctuation conventions, and similar elements to be mastered at particular grade levels. Regrettably, also, in view of substantial research indicating the contributions of oral drill and pattern practice to the effectiveness of instruction in usage, few teachers seem to utilize oral approaches.⁴ Silent drills involving choice of form or completion of blanks is the more usual fare.

⁴See the discussion of this point in Walter Loban, Margaret Ryan, and James R. Squire, Teaching Language and Literature (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1961), pp. 558-561.

The emphasis, then, on largely isolated usage drills and "functional" grammatical analysis related to the students' own writing is the major feature of language study in these schools. In retrospect, the decline in emphasis from the first year of high school to the last (from 21.5 percent of the time in Grade 10 to 8.4 percent in Grade 12) reflects for the most part a decline in emphasis on English usage. Many schools seem to schedule a formal review in Grade 10 of all difficult problems in English usage. A few also do provide for relatively systematic or organized review of concepts of English grammar presented earlier in the program. However, concern with sentence structure seems to continue without. Fewer than 20 percent of the ninety-nine twelfth-grade classes of college preparatory students interviewed by staff members admitted receiving assignments in anything they recognized as "grammar" during their senior year. The greater emphasis on language study found in classes for terminal students (almost 20 percent throughout the Study) is a reflection less of serious intellectual concern with linguistic matters than of greater reliance on drill sheets and workbook-type exercises dealing with particular items of usage. Project observers were especially suspicious of the value of such programs for terminal students.

The study of language in these schools then involves minimal attention to the systematic study of grammar and virtually no attention to dialectology, lexicography, phonology, and the history of the language, all of which are being recommended by many specialists today. At almost every point, the study of language as an instructional responsibility seems less important to teachers than the teaching of writing, and most instruction in language is subordinate to the study of composition. Considerable time is devoted to the study of sentence structure, but less in any organized way than as the problems which young people encounter in their writing would dictate.

Usage instruction is frequently based on errors which students make in their writing and speech, although some schools assign specific items for emphasis at particular grades. As Miriam Goldstein indicates in her description of language programs in certain of the better schools, the effect of twenty years of research in pedagogy and of confused argument about content and method in grammatical study has been to drive English grammar as a formal organized subject from the curriculum.⁵ What English grammar is taught systematically today, is largely presented in Grades 7 and 8. Some specialists even believe that any attention to grammar beyond Grade 9 will result in duplication. Those tenth graders who were interviewed reported this emphasis on grammatical studies at earlier levels, although the directors of the Study are in no position to judge whether such emphasis means either organized study of grammar or drills in usage.

A Special Problem: Language Books

The relative absence of formal programs in English language instruction and the attempt to relate what language study is presented to the actual writing of young people may explain the rejection by teachers of present language and composition books. For the most part, these books are prepared in three- or six-year sequences designed for the study of composition and language. Again and again observers reported seeing large numbers of such books in textbook rooms and on classroom shelves. In time some began to raise questions not only about the content of these books but about their actual use.

⁵ Miriam B. Goldstein, The Teaching of Language in Our Schools (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966).

In individual interviews, some 370 teachers were questioned concerning their attitudes toward the language and composition books. An overwhelming majority, virtually all of the teachers interviewed, admitted that their school was required to purchase such texts in an attempt to provide sequence in instruction. More than 70 percent of the teachers admit that they do not like the language and composition books they are using and do not use them with any degree of regularity (Chapter VI, Table 72). Workbooks are even less widely supported. Forced by school boards, administrators, supervisors, or a department chairman to bring such textbooks into the classroom, the teachers simply ignore the books. Moreover, if assigned to students, the texts usually remain in the student lockers; and if placed on a classroom bookshelf, they are only infrequently used. Not only did more than two-thirds of all teachers interviewed reject these books, but fewer than 10 percent could name another language series which they would use. Some teachers admit that they would use single copies of books from several series to suggest exercises for student use, but that they prefer to teach "grammar and usage" in their own way. As indicated earlier, their approach generally is to basic instruction on errors in the students' writing. The inflexible organization of many language books does not make this possible.

When queried about the reasons for requiring a single series of language and composition texts, many department chairmen stress the need for continuity and sequence in instruction. Because many schools lack a clear definition of grammar, usage, and other components of language study--indeed lack any controlled curriculum in this area--those responsible for assuring adequacy of a program in English seize upon the single series adoption as a way of providing sound scope and sequence. Chairmen quite candidly admit the deficiencies in the books and most were aware of the

recent report by Lynch and Evans which demonstrated anew that, whatever the claims of publishers, most of the language and composition books teach the same content at every grade level.⁶ Either because they are not able to question the decision concerning adoption or because they reason that any book is better than none at all, most departmental leaders merely perpetuate long standing tradition by ordering more such texts. In almost none of the schools were teachers and administrators aware of the fact that the books were not widely used. The problem seems particularly serious in those schools in which funds for purchase of learning materials are so meagre that classroom book collections, supplementary literature books, and reference and library books are in short supply. In most schools today the nation's taxpayers appear to be spending tens of thousands of dollars to purchase language books which teachers do not want and do not use, but do not publicly question.

The rejection of language books may be related directly to the absence of concern with organized programs for teaching language. Quite clearly, a well designed grammar, however simplified, may be a useful tool in assisting the teacher to provide systematic instruction, and many teachers claim to be waiting for such an introduction to modern grammars. Material on language history and on social and regional variations of the language require reading material and study exercises which many teachers will not be able to supply on their own. Moreover, a considerable number of teachers and a recent national conference of department chairmen recommended that English teachers have available in the classroom handbooks on English grammar and usage for reference use by students.⁷ The fundamental

⁶James J. Lynch and Bertrand Evans, loc. cit.

⁷Robert J. Lacampagne (ed.), op. cit., pp. 21-22, 54-58.

problem in both selection and use of particular books is confusion of means and ends in language study. The textbook can never be the curriculum, and only where teachers can agree on common objectives for teaching the English language can wide decisions be made concerning the classroom use of materials.

Where language books are purchased for a particular purpose, they appear to be carefully used. In certain schools, admittedly with unique or experimental programs, two student introductions to modern grammar by Paul Roberts, Patterns of English and English Sentences, were being carefully taught at specified grade levels. Dialects U. S. A., NCTE's book for students about regional variations in language, was being carefully read in another school. Two or three programmed textbooks seemed to be used in certain situations--often in classes of slow students or in twelfth-grade review groups. Slim volumes providing a series of drills in English usage were sometimes a handy aid; and some teachers described plans to use the boxed Individualized English, a self-instructional program of drill in English usage. None of these textbooks were widely enough used to suggest any trend, but it does appear that teachers of English are more likely to be satisfied by single language books written for particular purposes than by titles in a comprehensive series which attempt to cover the entire range of language and composition.

Some Promising New Programs

A few schools are introducing specially planned units on the history and study of language, though such developments are found more frequently in programs identified as "experimental" than in the basic 116 schools (See Chapter XIV). However, because a substantial number of department chairmen and leaders are concerned about the implication of recent

recommendations on language study emerging from studies by the National Council of Teachers of English, the Commission on English, and other groups, several of the new units in language study are described here in detail. These are not representative, however, but may be harbingers of change.

Schools in one large western city had redesigned their high school programs for college bound students four years prior to the visit by project staff members. The pattern for language study prescribed throughout the district included the study of syntax in Grade 9--presented in Paul Robert's Patterns of English--and required that all teachers study the textbook closely to establish a consistent approach. A four- to six-week unit on lexicography was planned for Grade 10, involving not only consideration of the meaning of words but a comparison of three standard student dictionaries. One unique feature of this program offered an introduction to the history of the dictionary, and the study of students of selected pages photographed from Johnson's 1755 dictionary, the 1889 Century Dictionary, and the Oxford English Dictionary of 1933.

The language unit for Grade 11 was devoted to dialect and linguistic geography, and covered such problems as the effect on language usage of differences in location, education, and occupation. Grade 12 included the study of a unit on the history of language, taught in relation to the study of selections from Canterbury Tales. An advanced study of the problems of correctness and appropriateness in English completed the four-year program.

This program is not unlike many of the experimental programs in the English language now attracting attention throughout the country. Project observers, noting both its successful operation and its shortcomings, were particularly impressed by the commitment of the English teachers to instruction in structural grammar. Only two or three of those interviewed

mentioned reservations about the program; most seemed confident that they understood the basic content. This confident attitude seemed to be the result of an inservice education program, supported financially by an outside foundation, which included teacher preparation at summer workshops as well as meetings during the school year. Thus many of the controversies which seem to beset other programs were not apparent in this one. Still, at a time when an increasing number of linguists and curriculum specialists were suggesting that aspects of transformational theory might offer more help for students than structural grammar, observers expressed some concern at the "closed" thinking evident throughout the faculty. However successful the program of continuing education had been in weaning teachers away from traditional schoolroom grammar and in encouraging them to accept the Roberts' interpretation of structural grammar, it seemed not to have prepared many to examine subsequent developments in grammatical study. In some ways, therefore, it seemed as if the school may have been in danger merely of substituting one dead order for another.

The classes studying Patterns in English, however, were as dedicated as the program of studies prescribed. A rigorous adherence to the textbook was evidenced throughout. To outsiders, the formality of the program and the lack of teacher resourcefulness were somewhat disturbing; but not the desirable attention directed toward key generalizations about the English language, an intellectual focus too often missing elsewhere.

The units on the dictionary were not taught during the period of observation. In conversation, however, teachers reported them to be interesting and successful, particularly with college bound students. Most teachers had abandoned the intensive study of the nature of dictionaries with groups of slow learners. At the time of the visit, the school district

was groping for better ways to organize the program for non-college students.

Least successful of the new language programs were the units for high school seniors, perhaps because less thought and preparation appeared to have been directed to them. The English chairman expressed hope that departmental or district committees would be able to provide more assistance than they had been able to provide earlier.

Without question, the language unit which elicited the most enthusiastic response from teachers and students was the study of the regional and social varieties of English. Evidence of enthusiasm for dialect study was apparent on bulletin boards, in student notebooks, in conversation with teachers. A special series of exercises and classroom experiences for teaching dialects had been developed by a district committee and was distributed for teacher use, and the English chairman asserted that the study proved to be particularly interesting to many of the slower students in the school.

The four-year language program was especially notable in the emphasis it placed on aspects of language other than grammar, in its separate language units which occupied as much class time as six weeks, and in the general enthusiasm it created among teachers.

A similar sequence had been planned in a small midwestern school. This sequence emphasized even more than the one described above the direct study of the growth and development of modern English, presented in sequentially organized units which concerned basic generalizations about language. The approach is distinguished in plan from several other such programs in that the units on grammar tend to be intensive, short, and narrow in scope. Thus, on many occasions, these brief units are introduced within larger thematic units or units involving the study of literature.

Incorporated in the sequence is attention to the use of language and to mechanics of expression, as well as to intellectual understandings.

Designed for use in a six-year school, the program provided for concentration on the grammar of the sentence during the early years and on broader studies of semantics, rhetoric, communication systems, and history of the language during the senior high school years. Not only were separate units planned for the study of sentence patterns and major structures, but for sentence variety, semantics, analysis of communication systems, and argumentation. The broad concept of language embracing not only structure, history, and linguistic geography, but speech, rhetoric, and semantics as well, seemed commendable to observers. Regrettably, the excitement of the planners was too seldom duplicated in the classroom.

Project observers questioned at times whether some of the teachers in the school were sufficiently knowledgeable to handle successfully the ambitious program of studies that had been planned. A lack of motivation on the part of both students and teachers seemed to undermine what in essence seemed to be an exciting program. Indeed, the attitude of faculty members contrasted sharply with that noted in the western school described earlier; the difference no doubt reflecting in part the effect of sustained efforts to inform teachers about the new language content through inservice meetings. In this program the newly developed units on aspect of language appeared to be successful only when taught by those with special training.

A few other experimental language programs could be mentioned, but all tend to resemble those described here. The programs are similar in certain characteristics: the study of the grammar of the English sentence tends to be scheduled early, often in Grades 7 and 8, with little more than review

hours planned during the senior high school.⁸ The study of language history tends to cap the sequence in the twelfth grade, perhaps because at this time students traditionally are concerned with historical studies in other fields. Studies of dialect and regional and social variation are not only increasingly introduced into Grade 9 or 10, but seem to awaken an unusually enthusiastic response from young people. The success of most such units suggests that these offerings will soon become widespread. In addition, teachers are trying to concern themselves with such matters as lexicography, semantics, rhetoric, and argumentation and persuasion. Sometimes introduced as special units, more often related to programs in composition, these offerings are receiving more varied reactions.

Thus, although the overwhelming majority of programs in this study have been only indirectly influenced by modern linguistic scholarship, some indication of new forces affecting the curriculum becomes apparent in selected schools. Unlike regular programs which concentrate on structure and usage in relation to practice in writing, the new programs clearly view language as possessing a content. This content involves theoretical considerations about the nature and structure of language itself, about the history and development of the English language, about the dictionaries used to record it, and about the dimensions of English which vary with social and geographical change. Perhaps because many teachers are not yet sufficiently informed about the varied aspects of language study, new programs seem at times halting, inadequate, and even confused. But it is

⁸At the Culver Military Academy, John C. Mellon has developed two one-year courses for Grades 7 and 8 dealing with sentence transformations. In some ways these books seem to require more time and attention than many schools are willing to devote to the study of grammar, but they do provide illustration of a bold attempt by one institution to provide instructional materials which are not yet commercially available.

folly to compare the teaching of newly identified content and approaches introduced by newly educated teachers with programs that have been lodged in our schools for decades. The important fact is that new ideas about the nature of language are slowly bringing a reconsideration of the place of language instruction in our total programs.

CHAPTER VII

THE TEACHING OF READING

The teaching of reading cannot easily be described in a separate report. Reading is an essential part of the English program; it involves not only the fundamental skills involved in reading, but also the development of attitudes, the provisions for personal reading, the selection of reading material, and, in its broadest sense, even the program in literature. In the schools visited, the teaching of reading tended to be viewed by the majority of English teachers as a special subject foreign to them--a study to be identified with special preparation, with separate, colored cards that have readings on them graduated in difficulty for each student, with complicated tachistoscopes and controlled readers--materials unfamiliar to English teachers that can be used only with small classes of students who have thirty-five to fifty-five minutes of quiet work three or four days a week. Few teachers seemed to relate such activity to the teaching of a sensitive, accurate response to a piece of written communication, literary or otherwise.

Department chairmen in the schools of the Study agree, however, that the fundamental purpose of reading instruction is "to help the student become a more active and critical reader" (Table 74). The chairmen then seem to recognize the importance of developmental reading instruction which exists not in the remedial programs, but in the total program in English, including therefore not only instruction in the basic skills (word attack, comprehension, speed), but instruction in the reading of literature. Learning to recognize "varieties of reading and reading assignments" is also reported to be important, as is helping students to "understand better what they read in other subjects." These three purposes are far

more highly regarded by department chairmen than primary emphasis on the development of basic skills, helping the student to increase his rate and comprehension, helping him to enlarge his reading vocabulary, or helping him to achieve grade level achievement on reading tests. Indeed, the former seem the only purposes likely to be achieved in the classes of those teachers who associate the teaching of reading with the teaching of literature, seldom providing separate instruction.

Table 74

Ranking of Objectives in Teaching Reading
as Reported by Department Chairmen
(n = 101 reports)

Objective	Number of Chairmen Ranking		
	#1	#2	#3
To Help the Student Increase His Reading Rate	2	5	7
To Enable the Student to Understand Better What He Reads in Other Subject Areas	11	8	12
To Help the Student Become a More Critical and Active Reader	54	20	9
To Help the Student Enlarge His Reading Vocabulary	1	14	20
To Enable the Student to Recognize the Varieties of Reading and Reading Assignments	22	27	17
To Enable All Students to Reach Their Appropriate Grade-level Achievement on Standardized Reading Tests	3	8	5

But when the English departments were interviewed and asked to comment on what responsibility they felt they as a department had for the teaching of reading, only 16 of 112 departments claimed a great responsibility for the subject, and another 37 departments claimed some responsibility (Table 75). Another 14 departments, however, felt no responsibility, and 33 considered the teaching of reading to be the obligation of a special teacher or

a special program. Observers heard teachers remark, on the one hand, "We aren't trained to teach reading," and on the other, "We teach it every day, whenever we open our anthology." But those things "always done" are far too often never really done. Indeed, careful distinctions between the teaching of literature per se and the teaching of students to read literature were not found by project observers to be characteristic of many classrooms. Even those teachers who had taken two or three courses in reading seemed to complain just as readily as others that they were not trained to teach reading. It seems that course work, or at least many courses in reading currently being offered, give no easy answer to the uncertainty of many high school programs today.

Table 75

Responsibility for the Teaching of Reading
Identified by Departments of English
(n = 112 departments)

Rank	Responsibility	Number of Responses
1	Some Responsibility	37
2	Responsibility of a Special Teacher or Program	33
3	Great Responsibility	16
4	No Responsibility	14
5	No Department Policy	5
6	Slight Responsibility	3
	No Answer	4

The lack of attention to the developmental skills of reading, even the skills of reading literature is revealed by the data on the use of class time. Department chairmen claim that only 3 to 4 percent of instructional

time in Grade 10 is devoted to reading, and this declines to 2 percent of instructional time in Grade 12. In a school year of thirty-six weeks, this would allow only from four to seven class hours for the teaching of developmental reading. The department chairmen had also reported, it will be recalled, that in their departments, 30 to 45 percent of classroom time is spent on literature, 22 to 25 percent on composition, and 20 percent on language, underestimating the attention to literature and overestimating the efforts in language and composition (Table 41). Of 35,209 minutes of classroom instruction observed, 1,487 minutes were devoted primarily to reading. In 1,617 separate classes, primary emphasis was devoted to teaching reading in only seventy-one classes (4.4 percent), twelve of which were designated as reading classes, not regular English classes. Altogether, reading received some attention, however minor, in only 10 percent of the classrooms. These classes were not classes solely for the advanced: 298 were for college bound students; 682 were for average students; 187 were for slow learners; and 442 were so heterogeneous as not to be classifiable. Thus, high school English programs in this Study devote overwhelming attention to the teaching and study of literature, but not to the skills involved in reading such literature. The student is apparently expected to become an "active and critical reader" simply by reading extensively.

In their summary reports, observers rated the schools on a seven point scale with respect to the effectiveness and coordination of instruction in reading carried on either by the department of English or by a reading specialist. More than half of the schools were ranked at the low end of the scale. Indeed, eighty-five of the 173 rated were assigned to the two lowest rankings possible, almost as many as the eighty-eight

assigned to the first five ratings. In these schools, at least the teaching of reading in any coordinated way seems yet to be a thing of the future.

Table 76

Observers' Rating of Overall Programs in Reading
(n = 173 ratings of 116 programs)

From effective, coordinated instruction in reading carried on by the English department or reading specialist				To no apparent effort or an ineffective attempt to teaching reading as a skill by English department or reading specialist		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	21	25	20	20	54	31

The findings are especially distressing in view of the fact that some 50 percent of the schools actually employ reading specialists on their faculties, usually as members of the departments of English. Apparently the presence of a staff member interested in reading does not guarantee success either in organizing special reading classes or in planning a program for teaching reading in the total English curriculum. Too often observers reported the special reading classes to be engaged in something other than reading instruction; sometimes the teachers themselves were admittedly untrained or uninterested; all too frequently the schools and departments continued to confuse the problems involved in teaching reading to all students with the problems involved in teaching English to slow learners. What perhaps started as a noble and needed enterprise degenerated into little more than routine presentation of mimeographed drill sheets or into class periods in which all pretense at instruction is abandoned and students are left free to read individually chosen books on their own.

As Table 77 indicates, project observers also examined evidence that indicated development of several kinds of reading programs. In only 17

Table 77

Observers' Assessment of Special Programs in Reading

(n = 95 schools)

Type of Program	Organized Program Much in Evidence	Some Evidence of Attempt at Program	Little or No Evidence of Program
Developmental Reading Program	16	47	32
Remedial Reading Program	7	51	38
Reading Laboratory for Individual Study	5	39	51

percent of the schools were well organized developmental programs found. The use of reading laboratory periods, not introduced in half the schools, were seldom seen in many others. Some work in remedial reading was found much in evidence in only seven of the ninety-five schools, despite the fact that half reported employing reading specialists. In these special reading classes, as in many of the special sections for slow readers, a wide variety of teaching material was found. More than thirty different drill books and work books seem used throughout the country, but only the SRA Reading Laboratory and, to a lesser extent, the Readers' Digest Skill Builders, appear to be widely used, perhaps because both tend to present the teacher with a packaged system purporting to be self-instructional (Table 78). Tachistoscopes, reading pacers, accelerators, and reading films were found here and there, but the "hardware" seems not to be widely used even by the reading specialists. Indeed, in several schools, rooms of such unused "hardware" stand strangely idle while desperate school officials search for reading teachers who can manipulate these mechanical aids.

Teachers of English individually seem unimpressed by the need of teaching reading. When 438 teachers of English were asked in private interviews to identify the strengths of their English programs, fewer than

Table 78

Materials Used for the Teaching of Reading
as Reported by Department Chairmen
(n = 108)

Rank Order	Material	Number of Responses
1	Scientific Research Associates Reading Laboratory	40
2	Readers' Digest Skill Builders	16
4	Reading for Meaning	5
4	Reading for Understanding	5
4	Teen-Age Tales	5
7	Be a Better Reader	3
7	Better Reading	3
7	Practical English	3

Twice mentioned were: Harcourt Brace "Second Track" Series; How to Become a Better Reader; Basic Reading Skills; Reading Through Précis; Reading Skills. Another twenty texts were mentioned once. Eighteen schools reported they used no reading materials.

eight identified the program in reading (Table 50), although none of them considered the program as a weakness, nor suggested changes. (Thirty-nine did mention the literature program in general.) When the teachers on the individual questionnaire were asked to rank various areas in English in the order of their importance to the success of the English program, only 194 of 1,331 teachers (14.6 percent) ranked the teaching of reading first. Such findings, coupled with the general neglect of reading in these programs, seems to confirm the suspicion that a conscious effort to teach reading is not considered a significant aspect of the English program by the average teacher of English.

Students seem aware of the reading program in about the same proportion as that of teachers. In interviews with 99 classes of twelfth-

grade students, 8 separate class groups identified learned reading skills as a forte. However, individual questionnaires filled out by these same students, 197 of 2,317 students said they wanted a better reading program, the fourth most frequently requested change (Table 56). Some 287 of them also said they wanted changes in the literature program, the second most mentioned change. Considered together, reading and literature comprised the greatest category which students wanted changed.

The students and teachers who wish to see greater attention to reading are not calling for programs in reading that are fraught with the paraphernalia of the specialized skills teacher. Reading specialists can provide important help to individual students and can work with teachers in several fields, but as high schools are presently organized, a strong developmental reading program for all students seems likely to come only as teachers in general English classes are led to see the differences between reading and the teaching of reading, between literature and the reading of literature. It is not likely to come for instance, until the high school teacher of English is more aware than at present that in teaching Julius Caesar, he has an obligation to teach students how to read a Shakespearean play--to prepare them for future reading of other plays, as well as to teach that particular play. If the teacher is to teach reading as he teaches literature, the works studied in the classroom must more often be considered representative of critical problems in reading, rather than considered narrowly as be-alls and end-alls. What special skills are needed to read a sonnet? To analyze an essay? To comprehend a metaphor? These are questions which deserve of teachers greater thought and attention. "The student's development through literature" seems to be the objective of literary study to which most English teachers subscribe, but must not

such development provide for development of the skills of reading and analyzing mature literary works?

Teachers are certainly sympathetic to the need for close reading and analytical study, even though few of them engage their students in it. The theory that critical, comprehensive analysis may defeat appreciation is rejected by some 60 percent of these teachers, according to results on the issues questionnaire. And 81 percent of the teachers are convinced that some literature, especially poems and short stories, must be taught through close textual analysis (See discussion in Chapter III). But if teachers are so convinced that there is no danger in a close analytical study destroying a poem's beauty, why, then, is so little of this type of teaching observed?

Limited preparation time may militate against preparing detailed lessons for analytical study. Perhaps teachers just do not understand how to teach students at lower levels to apply modern critical approaches. Table 18 (Chapter II) indicates that teachers are more interested in the close study of literature than in any other subject related to their teaching. Such study inevitably involves the acquisition of mature reading skills. Perhaps the solution to the problem is simply to help teachers see that in high schools the critical study of literature must necessarily involve the teaching of reading, at some times implicitly, but at other times, explicitly. This at least would be a beginning.

But a sound program of reading must involve instruction in even more basic skills for all students. The evidence in this Study suggests that in these schools, at least, departments of English have yet to find sound ways of incorporating developmental programs in reading within the total English program and of providing remedial instruction for those children who are substandard readers.

CHAPTER VIII

ORGANIZATION AND SUPERVISION OF ENGLISH DEPARTMENTS
AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF CURRICULUM

Of substantial importance to the success of an English program is the organization of the department as a whole, including the administrative structure, the physical arrangement, and even the subtle relationships affected by individual personalities within the department. The overall plan for supervising instruction seemed clearly part of this total structure, as did the preparation and use of printed courses of study and syllabi to guide the department. Indeed, within a short time after observations began, it became very clear to project staff members that this variable of departmental organization was of such importance, and that individual schools reflected such differing structures, that it seemed desirable to arrange two invitational conferences for department chairmen to explore the problems and to advance recommendations designed to strengthen English departments in general. The report of these conferences, High School Departments of English: Their Organization, Administration and Supervision¹ has been made available to the profession through the NCTE, and it also serves as the major report to the Office of Education, which supported the two conferences under contract with the University of Illinois (Cooperative Research Project No. F 047). Because of this report and its ready availability, the discussion here has been somewhat abbreviated; not that the issue of organizing English departments is less important than other aspects receiving longer treatment, but that a complete report would be redundant. However, the report on the entire Study would be incomplete without a summary of

¹Robert J. Lacampagne, (ed.), op. cit.

impressions concerning departmental organization, supervision, and the use of printed courses of study.

Departmental Organization

That the organization of the department is a necessary ingredient to a successful English program is attested to by the many comments by project observers who cited "Leadership in the Department" forty-nine times, making this one element third in frequency of comment with respect to "Strengths of English Departments" (Table 36). Furthermore, other strengths such as "Resources Available for Teaching" and "Climate of Work in the Department," which ran fourth and fifth respectively, can be viewed as having a direct relationship both to the quality of leadership and the overall organization in the department. Of as much moment, however, is the fact that observers identified "Inadequate Department Leadership" as the most frequent weakness of programs, citing this deficiency sixty-three times in their reports. Although one still hears an occasional argument against the departmental system in the high school, there is very clear indication from the observers of this project that schools having considerable degrees of organization have superior English programs. From their observation of selected programs, there would seem to be a decided tendency abroad toward strengthening departmental lines and increasing departmental autonomy. And this view is not confined to members of The National Study of High School English Programs. The report of the CEEB Commission on English makes abundantly clear that English departments must learn to exercise considerably more enterprise and autonomy than they have at present. G. Melvin Hipps, writing in The Clearing House,² pleads for greater responsibility for the

²G. Melvin Hipps, "Supervision: A Basic Responsibility of the Department Head," The Clearing House, XXXIX (April, 1965) 487-91.

department chairman, particularly in the area of supervision, and a recent research report from the American Association of School Administrators indicates that the number of department heads is increasing.³

In comparison with schools at large, those participating in the National Study are more highly organized if the degree of responsibility of the department chairman offers a kind of index. Although there is considerable variation among these schools as to the actual responsibility given to the chairman, the amount of time he is released from teaching to perform these duties, and the amount of money paid him for administering the department, it may be said that in all of these matters the typical chairman in project schools is given more time, more money, and more responsibility than is the typical chairman in other schools. As an index of the other variables, the time that he is released to perform supervisory or curricular duties is probably most significant. A comparison of "released time" given to chairmen as found in the project schools and in 241 unselected schools that responded to a questionnaire designed by Charles B. Ruggless for the NCTE is shown in Table 79. Extra compensation for chairmen in Study schools

Table 79

Released Periods of Department Chairmen in Study Schools
Compared with Unselected Schools Nationally

	Study Schools (n = 106)	Unselected Schools (n = 241)
Reduced by <u>1</u> class	39.1 percent	11 percent
Reduced by <u>2</u> classes	29.7 percent	7 percent
Reduced by more than <u>2</u> classes	<u>13.3</u> percent	<u>4</u> percent
Total with any class reduction	82.1 percent	22 percent

³"Department Heads in Senior High Schools," ERS Reporter, 1966, American Association of School Administrators (January, 1966), p. 2.

averages 213. It is understood that these schools do not match in other dimensions and that the differences noted offer no absolute distinctions. However, that these differences do exist points to the reasonable assumption that there is a greater degree of organization in English departments of participating schools and certainly that the chairman has more authority.

Many departments, however, were led after a fashion by chairmen who served only in name, who had no official authority except perhaps to order chalk, pencils and paperclips, or worse, chairmen who were commissioned to write the curriculum, speak to the PTA, supervise teachers and take on clearly administrative burdens without either the time or compensatory pay to help them do the task. Significantly, many such chairmen who attended the Cleveland conference for department chairmen were especially supportive of the recommendations that would have chairmen given released time commensurate with the responsibilities of the position. On the other hand, there were many schools in the project that supported the professional work of the chairman by recognizing the absolute need for appropriate time and compensation. In such schools the principal cited the efforts of these individuals as they tended to upgrade not only the English program but the entire academic program of the school. Most department chairmen are appointed for no specific period, the usual contract reading something to the effect that he will serve "at the pleasure of the Board of Education," but about one-fourth serve for only a year or two, whereupon another teacher assumes the position. Rarely is he elected by his fellow English teachers, most often being appointed by the principal. In the very best schools observed, the department chairmen were given a good deal of responsibility in the areas of curriculum development, teacher selection and supervision,

and even public relations. Although all of the chairmen observed did not function in the same way (nor did they come from the same mold), the professional competency of the most able did appear to follow certain patterns. The following statement of the role and responsibilities of English department chairmen was written by the project staff in response to a consensus established by the participating chairmen at the two invitational conferences alluded to above.

From either a practical or a theoretical point of view, the single most important reason for appointing an English department chairman in the secondary school is to improve instruction. Therefore, considerations of years in service, personal friendship, or immediate convenience should give way to the professional and intellectual competence that the chairman can bring to the many-faceted role that he must play as department leader. On the other hand, he must provide vigorous intellectual leadership pervading the department and other reaches of his school as well. That he must himself be a teacher of stature who is willing to demonstrate his ability as opportunities are available is obvious; but he should also reveal a more than common knowledge of his subject and extend this knowledge by a continuing study of English and of research in the teaching of English. In part, this commitment to his profession can be fostered by continuous activity in professional organizations; in part, it is served by his individual efforts to learn and disseminate the promising ideas to be found in journals, in professional literature, or in other schools. On the other hand, the department chairman is responsible for creating a favorable climate for learning by working with teachers and administrators to give English teachers time to teach. By promoting within the department an atmosphere of mutual respect (tempered, however, with the opportunity for mutual criticism), by encouraging the exchange of ideas, and by guarding against an excess of clerical and administrative impediments, he will hopefully achieve the necessary climate for effective teaching and learning.

Granted then, that the department chairman has the intellectual vigor, the stamina, and the personal qualities to create such an atmosphere, what are his responsibilities and duties? Although many of his functions are difficult to circumscribe precisely, and although the size and organization of each school is unique, it may be helpful to think of his responsibilities in four major areas--understanding that the categories are frequently arbitrary and that the particular responsibilities listed under one may carry over to other categories. These areas are (1) procedural details, (2) supervision, appointment, and evaluation of teachers, (3) curriculum development, and (4) public relations.

1. PROCEDURAL DETAILS

Obviously the first area is related to all of the others and seems, at first, of slight consequence to the chairman's proper function. Yet ability to set procedure and to handle details is essential; only if a chairman can manage the routines of office can he free himself for more important responsibilities. By abdicating a responsibility to draw the departmental budget, he narrows the effectiveness of his teachers by limiting the books and equipment they might have had. By failing to participate in student registration and grouping procedures, he puts fetters on the English curriculum. A resourceful chairman can avoid a complexity of minor problems by working with his teachers to develop guidelines dealing with everything from supplying books and films to establishing criteria for correcting themes. A competent department chairman employs vision, but also procedure, in planning meaningful department meetings and curriculum studies.

2. SUPERVISION, APPOINTMENT, AND EVALUATION OF TEACHERS

If a department chairman is to be responsible for the quality of English instruction in his school, he must be involved in the appointment, supervision, and evaluation of English teachers. Although large school districts must use centralized offices and personnel specialists to cope with the plight of too few teachers and too many classrooms, the chairman should still advise in hiring new teachers. At best, he is a party to the recruiting and interviewing of prospective teachers before they are employed. As the one who best knows the needs of his department, he is in a position to recommend the most qualified replacement or addition. Knowing the appointee in advance, he can start orientation long before the opening day of school.

The chairman is likewise in the most favorable position to know the inadequacies of other teachers on the English staff and can therefore counsel them as to the kinds of inservice training which would be most helpful. By the same token, he knows best the unique strengths of his department members and finds ways to make these resources available to others. He struggles, for example, to encourage the creative teacher to experiment with new procedures and new content, without sacrificing instructional goals required for program continuity. He listens carefully to those who have new ideas to present and encourages careful departmental consideration of every new idea, no matter how unpopular it may initially seem. He can recommend to local colleges and universities the kinds of courses that would be especially useful to a group of teachers, or the kinds of workshops or institutes that would benefit an entire department. He can call to the attention of college or district authorities those teachers in the department who have unusual talents which could contribute to workshops or special meetings. As an agent of liaison within the school, the chairman also serves as intermediary among his teachers, the guidance department, and the administration. In this capacity he can, for example, help teachers interpret standardized test scores, win administrative support for a department project, or suggest that a teacher use one of the auxiliary student services in handling a unique problem.

Implicit in this liaison position is the chairman's role in teacher evaluation. Whether such evaluation means dismissal, tenure, or an additional salary increment, the teacher has a right to expect that the person who is most knowledgeable about him, his subject, and the varieties of teaching methods open to him should judge his competence. Although the school principal can judge in part and, in larger districts, the subject matter specialist can judge in part, the department chairman is probably most highly qualified to weigh all parts. However, if the burden of teacher evaluation is to be borne by the chairman, it seems axiomatic that he should have opportunity and authority for classroom visitation--not once or twice, and not capriciously--but to the extent that he can render a professional judgment concerning the effectiveness of a teacher. Such visitation, of course, demands that he be given the necessary time for observing classes and for holding conferences with teachers following each visit. Certainly for new teachers the visit and the conference supply the best possible method for inservice education and the consequent improvement of teacher effectiveness. The chairman's intimate knowledge of each teacher's strengths, of course, enables the chairman to write the overall English schedule, deploying each teacher to the grade levels and ability groups where he can be most successful. It also assists him in advising teachers about instructional matters or in supporting those creative teachers who seek to experiment with new approaches or new content.

In working with teachers in his department, the chairman has one special obligation to the future of English teaching, the responsibility of identifying, encouraging, and educating one or two vigorous, creative young teachers who may someday serve as English chairmen on their own. Indeed given the present turnover on many school faculties and the rate at which new schools are being constructed, each chairman may seriously accept the obligation to be preparing at all times at least two potential chairmen, one for his own school and one for some newly created department elsewhere.

3. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Any effort towards improving the curriculum or developing a new course of study rests on the assumption that the subject content or sequence might be changed. It is obvious then that a chairman's primary responsibility in the area of curriculum is the continuing assessment of its strengths and weaknesses. Such an evaluation suggests that he know what happens, not only during the three or four years of high school English, but in the years before and after--in the English programs of contributing elementary and junior high schools and in those local colleges and universities where the majority of college-bound students will go. An understanding of these programs and a knowledge of new developments in subject matter and method allow the chairman, in association with his fellow teachers, to make intelligent decisions concerning curriculum change. For the most part, he asserts an oblique influence on curriculum by working with fellow teachers in selecting books, in preparing suggestive guides for teaching particular works of literature, in outlining special approaches to teaching language or composition. Large scale or districtwide curriculum renovation would clearly demand not only his talent and the contribution of many teachers, but the unique knowledge and

authority of the district supervisor and the assistance of the college specialist as well.

Besides providing a means of articulation between the high school, the college, and the elementary school English programs, the English department chairman must work closely with chairmen of other subject areas to avoid the problems of repetition or conflicting instruction and to promote a healthy reinforcement and extension of ideas and skills.

4. PUBLIC RELATIONS

One avenue of school and college articulation already present in many secondary schools is the practice of using high school classes as a training ground for future teachers. A capable chairman accepts the responsibility of placing these interns with helpful and competent teachers and he also cooperates with the college instructors in evaluation. There are many bonuses: promising candidates may be singled out as future staff members; lines of communication between the school and the college stay open; fresh viewpoints are obtained; good relationships with the local college are enhanced.

A decidedly important function of the English chairman is in this very area of public relations--or more specifically, public attitudes toward English and English teaching. An open door policy is not enough. To dispel the common public notion that English is nothing more than an accumulation of rules regarding spelling and verbal niceties, the department chairman should interpret the program to administrators, parents, and the public at large. Resolute and intelligent interpretation raises the public image of the teaching of English and provides a sympathetic background for improvement of the profession.

But the effective organization of a department depends on more than a single person. Not every department, moreover, would function at its best under the conditions described above, necessarily a somewhat idealized view reflecting the apparent needs of the relatively large public school. Smaller schools, and to a large extent, independent schools would probably find the effects of formal efficiency and authority quite unnecessary.

One aspect of department organization that is often overlooked or underestimated is the physical matter of space for the department center or office. Practices differed a great deal and some were obviously affected by financial considerations that tended to limit the possibility of having a well equipped center. However, it can be stated unequivocally

that the most farsighted departments and the best programs supported some kind of department center or office which served as a nucleus for the whole. Observers felt that the less successful pattern was that of the department office, generally small and housing little more than the chairman himself. Much more successful were the rooms outfitted as a commons with enough in the way of desks and materials to accommodate many of the department's teachers at the same time--a space where they could either relax or work, or what is more common, a place where teachers could rub elbows and discuss mutual problems and tentative solutions. Although there was no good index to be found for the frequency and the quality of professional conversation that occurs in any given school, it seems clear to the project staff that the department center arrangement encourages helpful communication among teachers; the pigeon-hole effect of having teachers dispersed around the building, each one expected to oversee his assigned area, creates professional isolation and stagnation. (See description of one department center in a large-city high school, Chapter XII.) Without question, the department center does more than bring appropriate supplies and teaching materials to the instructors; it provides a climate for ideas that directly affects the teaching process.

Even the most able chairmen working under optimum conditions with appropriate released time, with clerical help and good physical facilities were made more efficient and helpful by delegating certain responsibilities to other members of the department. Thus, some had grade-level chairmen who functioned with varying degrees of autonomy; others depended on ad hoc committees to prepare curricular materials or to design year-end tests. In some of the largest departments, sub-chairmen were named and these individuals were also given particular responsibilities and released time to carry them out.

Supervision of Instruction

Related to department organization is the matter of supervision of English teachers and of the entire English program. While it is very clear that much cogent supervision is accomplished very indirectly, it is also equally clear that few schools in the Study maintain rigorous policies of direct supervision and evaluation of their English programs. The principals and the English chairmen of the 116 basic high schools were asked to describe the structure for supervision in English. Less than a fourth of the chairmen and only twelve principals indicated that they did not think supervision was part of their job. But, in thirty-two of these schools, no one within the school, nor anyone from the county or city office supervises instruction on a regular basis. Only a third of the department chairmen (37 percent) said in personal interview that they actually supervised instruction, and only twenty-five principals indicate that they directly supervise instruction. Forty-four schools reported little or no supervision of instruction by anyone within the school. In only eight schools did the principal and department chairman both indicate that they supervise the instructional program and visit their colleagues' classes.

In the eighty-four schools which have organized programs of supervision, practice varies considerably. Twenty-four department chairmen (21 percent) visit classes. Twenty department chairmen (17 percent) hold conferences with teachers, usually after observing the teacher in the classroom. Only eleven chairmen attempt to evaluate the teacher's method. Fourteen discuss possible methods either in department meetings or during individual teacher conferences. Six principals indicated they handle supervision almost exclusively through department chairmen meetings. Four said they used meetings with teachers as a supervisory tool, and only

three principals said they held curriculum discussions. It may be assumed that more curriculum discussions are held than indicated here; they are probably contained in the more general meetings called by the principals. Significantly, no one--principal or department chairman--mentioned the use of common final examinations as a supervisory and evaluative tool.

In some instances, chairmen were required not only to visit classes and hold conferences with their teachers, but also to file written reports with the principal. Practice varied a good deal concerning the teachers who were to be visited--in some cases tenured teachers were exempted, in others they were not. Very rarely were teachers in a department asked to turn in lesson plans to a department chairman, or apparently to anyone else, although they were nearly always expected to keep these plans in some detail so that, among other things, they would be available for a substitute teacher. Some 44 percent of the principals in the original project schools indicated by questionnaire response that they supervised instruction directly by visiting classes; however, in personal interview only 22 percent revealed that they personally visit classes for purposes of supervision. It is safe to say that in almost half of the schools there is literally no direct supervision of the English program, by principals, department chairmen or supervisors, a condition that must raise some professional eyebrows, though it is of no apparent concern to many of the English departments that have very fine programs. These data may not offer a completely accurate reflection of the degree to which principals and chairmen are involved in supervision of the instructional program. The questions asked in interviews were deliberately open-ended. Principals and chairmen were seldom asked directly if they visited classrooms. It seems likely, however, that whenever both principals and chairmen forgot

to mention the devices they used in supervising the program, these schools probably lacked a formal program for such supervision. The evidence seems to support the conclusion that formal, thorough programs for the supervision and evaluation of instruction do not exist in most of the schools visited and that almost without exception, considerable improvement is possible.

A meaningful portrait of an adequate program for the supervision and evaluation of the instructional program may be assembled from practices in several schools observed to have outstanding supervisory programs in certain respects. In one school, the program for coordinating the work of the department was based on the final examination. A major part of the end-of-the-year examination at each grade level was constructed at the departmental level. Meetings of teachers were called to review areas of emphasis at each grade level with respect to content to be stressed. Each test was scored by at least two other members of the department in addition to the teacher from whose class the test was taken. The teacher's anonymity was preserved. The departmental discussion served as a review of purposes and goals. The composite results for a given grade level provided a useful estimate of the degree to which the objectives for that level were being met. Since a given teacher could identify his own tests, he was able to make a direct comparison of his own success with that of the rest of the department. Virtually all teachers in the department benefitted from receiving several viewpoints on what and how to teach.

In another school, the dominant device for evaluation and supervision was classroom observation. The department chairman observed every teacher on a regular basis. A written critique, prepared covering a predetermined set of areas, was used as the basis for individual conferences on the ends and means of teaching English. The chairman thus met regularly with every teacher

to discuss instructional problems. Quite often the chairman referred teachers to sources outside the school for specific assistance with a teaching problem, such as to the district supervisor or to the central professional library.

These descriptions suggest only two partially complete programs of supervision. In schools with such programs, supervision is viewed as a natural, professional approach for maintaining and improving the quality of the program. It poses no threat to any teacher's security. It is a common characteristic of schools in which the chairman is selected for the leadership he can offer.

Many chairmen, regrettably, overlook the potential value of department head meetings, common final examinations, classroom observations, teacher conferences, and reviews of lesson plans as methods of evaluating and supervising programs. The information on the program derived through such approaches can be secured with little difficulty. Almost all high school English programs contain some kind of comprehensive final examination. To the extent such an examination has been constructed to measure the student's progress toward the objectives of the program, it is also a statement about the individual teacher's success and the success of the department. Many departments require teachers to submit lesson plans on some regular basis if for no other reason than to assist a possible substitute teacher. If these lesson plans are relatively detailed, an occasional review of sample plans could provide an invaluable insight into content and procedures of many classes. Department meetings, also, can be devoted to exploring areas of weakness common to a large segment of the department. Perhaps the most expensive, but most effective, approach to supervision is classroom observation. It is expensive simply because, unless it is organized

carefully, it provides little constructive criticism of use to the teacher. When an administrator or supervisor does visit a classroom, too often he is concerned only with general competence, with whether to "retain" the teacher, rather than with making a detailed analysis of areas of strength and weakness. The latter can provide the basis for a helpful conference and repeated regularly by a trained chairman or supervisor, can result in sustained improvement; the former usually leads only to a decision to retain the teacher or seek a replacement. Certainly classroom supervision of teaching is used neither widely or well as a method of supervision, but where it is used, it can have a powerful effect.

Most programs of poor quality visited by project observers lacked any supervision at all. In such programs, lack of consensus and the lack of leadership seem to combine bringing about unfortunate consequences--a fragmented program, duplication of effort, conflicting philosophies and practices, slavish textbook teaching on the one hand, and freewheeling methods combined with questionable content on the other. Such conditions cry out for knowledgeable and forceful supervision. As indicated repeatedly in the report of the department conferences of 1964, department chairmen are in the most advantageous position to help teachers and, as necessary, to evaluate them. In the opinion of the project staff, there are few schools that would not improve their English programs by the simple expedient of delegating more authority and more responsibility to their respective departments and department chairmen.

Courses of Study and Program Designs

Although it can be said that this entire report is a composite picture of English programs as they currently exist in 158 selected high schools, it is also appropriate to view the programs as they appear in

the various curriculum guides or courses of study. On the one hand, such a perspective will show what the schools say they are doing in English; on the other hand, these findings can be compared with those of other studies that have been based entirely on an examination of extrinsic course materials, notably the 1958 report from the U. S. Office of Education.⁴

The original 116 high schools, therefore, were asked to send whatever they would in the way of curriculum guides, courses of study, study guides, or other materials that would reflect their various courses in English. A genuinely helpful by-product of this solicitation was that the visitors usually had some knowledge of a school's English program before the period of observation. It was thus possible to organize the visit and to conduct interviews or to arrange observations in a more meaningful way, particularly where schools had innovated in some marked way.

Of the original 116 schools, eighty-five sent enough in the way of curricular materials to enable the project staff to read and analyze them in meaningful fashion. As the following statistics reveal, there is considerable variety in the way schools or districts go about the process of committing their programs to paper. There is variety in length, in kind, in "voice" and in the audience assumed by the curriculum makers. The variation in the apparent purposes of the guides makes it very difficult to categorize them with great accuracy; the very names suggest different uses and purposes: course of study, curriculum guide, curricular materials, resource materials, syllabus, or simply "English." At one extreme can be found mere topical outlines of the work expected at certain grade levels,

⁴ Arno Jewett, English Language Arts in American High Schools, Bulletin 1958, No. 13 (Washington, D. C.: United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1959).

some of them, alas, being little more than textbook tables of contents;⁵ at the other are lengthy, comprehensive courses of study detailing activities and questions for an entire four-year sequence.

No doubt the diversity of schools represented in the project sample helps to account for the great range in the type of guide produced. One would expect that a multiple-school district would have courses of study developed for all of its schools in the district and, by the same token, autonomous schools would produce their own materials, perhaps to augment a state-prepared syllabus. Of the eighty-five courses of study sent to the project office or given to observers on the occasion of the visit, fifty-three were apparently developed in individual schools and twenty-nine were produced for more widespread use by the city or county school district. Only three state guides were found in the collection, and these were from less populous states in the West or South. And although a number of states having schools represented in the Study have prepared guides and materials, they were with the exceptions noted, not sent to the project office, one would assume because they did not particularly reflect the organization and content of courses in the individual schools.⁶ It would appear from these facts that the curriculum in English is considered to be essentially a local matter by those in the schools, a responsibility or privilege of individual schools and districts rather than a mandate on the state. It is true, however, that some of the school or district guides alluded to the state syllabi or the state curriculum bulletins in the context of their own

⁵Perhaps it would be more accurate to say that this extreme is represented by those schools that do not have any written course of study.

⁶Arno Jewett, op. cit. Appendix B lists twenty-one states having state curriculum guides in 1958. Certainly the number would be somewhat higher in 1963-65.

courses of study. Also of some influence were state department personnel, curriculum study centers of Project English, local university consultants and nationally recognized authorities in English or the teaching of English, many of whom helped schools or districts to put materials together.

Other quantifiable data from the collection of curriculum guides bear on the uses to which they are presumably put and on the proportion of their contents with aspect to particular skills and components of English. While some of them reflect different course organizations for different grade levels or ability groups, nearly half of those that concerned especially with literature were found to reflect a types approach. Twenty-one of the forty-six were developed according to literary genre; thirteen according to theme and twelve according to chronology. These findings are roughly parallel to those of the Jewett report incorporating 285 courses of study in as broad a geographical range.⁷

The reports from department chairmen in response to a direct question concerning the organization of English courses by grade level also reveals that the "types" approach is most prevalent at the tenth grade, and the chronological most in the eleventh and twelfth grades by a considerable margin (Table 60). The orientation to genre and then to chronology is generally born out by the reports of project visitors. Apparently what began in the thirties was cited in the Jewett report as the beginning of a modest trend toward the development of thematic units in place of traditional organization by chronology has not developed as such in the schools comprising this sample.

Nonetheless, a significant number of the guides (55) contained

⁷Ibid., p. 65.

teaching units of one kind or another. And the presence of such units suggests direct application of a guide, that it be used in an active way by the teachers in the classrooms. This is not to say that all fifty-five units were organized thematically. Some were highly specific units on speech or business letters while others had such diverse titles as: Product of our Pioneer Spirit, We hold These Truths, Fun with Poetry, Return of the Native; "Ozymandias," or Macbeth. In general, it is hard to escape the notion that a unit in the sixties does not always signify the same thing to the individuals who prepare curriculum guides. It also seems to be true that whereas a unit in the thirties or forties meant no specific literature, but perhaps a complex of ideas somehow related to a general one, a unit has now come increasingly to be based either on certain skills or on a particular piece of literature. Certain poems, stories, plays or novels might be related to, but the single work has often become the core of the unit. Although this is a tenuous generalization, it is supported by evidence found elsewhere in this report on the unusually heavy emphasis on the study of literature per se in the English programs. Beyond these unit-oriented materials, some sixteen courses of study included detailed study guides for particular works of literature without reference to broader units. These characteristics of the guides seem to reflect contemporary concern with the reading of literary texts in depth more than they reflect the active emphasis seen by observers in the classroom (Chapter IV). But perhaps one function of such printed course designs is to direct attention to what should be.

While there was much evidence within the guides that considerable attention was given to the matters of grammar, usage, spelling and other writing mechanics, no careful quantitative analysis along these lines was made. Generally speaking, as much as half of the total content of the guides appears to be directed toward such matters, a much higher percentage

of concern in the guides than was reflected in observed classroom teaching (See Chapter III).

Like the composition-grammar texts to be found throughout the high schools, most official courses of study give scant attention to the teaching of writing. Only about one-fourth (23 percent) of the schools that forwarded materials to the project office felt it necessary to treat composition in a special section in their curriculum guides. As noted in Chapter V, one of the more promising practices found by the visitors was the approach to teaching writing in a sequential way by structuring the kinds of writing to be done. On the other hand, there was concern for the product of composition as evidenced by the number of evaluation charts, occasional samples of student writing, lists of "fatal errors, and lists of correction symbols. Also so-called scope and sequence charts do enumerate in their fragmentary fashion various kinds of writing experiences expected from year to year. Only three of the guides explicitly revealed that the English course was to be divided on a semester basis--one semester for grammar and composition and the other for literature. In practice, moreover, only one instance of such a division was found by the observers, and this in a southern school located in a small town sufficiently removed from major urban or university centers that the teachers seemed out of contact with current professional dialogue. Apparently what was once a fairly common basis for the organization of English has now passed on in favor of a fused program.

Most courses of study that are developed beyond the embryonic stage cited goals that are related to a philosophy which is usually to be found in its early pages. And although these statements might make an interesting

study in themselves, their relevance here is only to the point that they really influence the overall guide and subsequently an entire English program. The consensus of the project observers is that these statements of goals or philosophies have very little or no influence on the actual program. (See, for example, the discussion of what teachers say they believe is important in Chapter XI.) Nevertheless, it is interesting to find that when goals are cited, they are usually couched in terms of behavioral outcomes. ("The responsibility for developing alert and discriminating listeners should be part of the language program.") As such, they lend themselves to an orientation toward social or political virtues. ("To bring about an understanding of democratic ideals and to stimulate a devotion to them".) One course of study dated 1945 even uses the term "Social English" to encompass the uses of the letter and the telephone.

Statistically, almost as many (23) of the printed curriculum guides were based on the quadruped schema of speaking, writing, reading, and listening as on any other rationale (26). One school system, not one to leave out anything, found a five-point basis of the above four skill areas plus literature! It is difficult to draw generalizations concerning trends from the many outlines and courses of study reviewed, but it does seem that the newer, more enlightened guides depend less on making precise connections to some pat system or on preparing a philosophy with all the earmarks of an apology, and more on presenting the subject matter of English as a broadly-based, humanistic study of language, literature and composition. To be sure, a rationale for teaching English and a coming to terms with the basic components is altogether necessary. And there are many individual courses that offer a nice balance between philosophy and classroom practice.

In the opinion of the investigators, however, much of the philosophy expressed in the various forewords and introductions might well be grounded in more pragmatic terms.⁸

More than half of the materials received (45) reflected no kind of grouping or tracking in the respective English programs, an interesting point inasmuch as all but a few of the schools in the sample exhibited various degrees of tracking (See Chapter XI). Clearly, most of the written courses of study were directed to the average, or somewhat-better-than-average classes. Although principals and department chairmen are inclined to point to ability groups as the first means of solving the problems of individual differences, it is patently clear that most curriculum makers or English departments have not made efforts to make viable written programs for terminal students.⁹ Twenty-two of the schools have written guides having some attention to the typical student, but these are, by and large, directed toward the gifted or "advanced placement" students--to those who are generally already highly motivated. Only eighteen of the eighty-five courses of study seem to reflect an equal concern for the whole spectrum of high school students, at least only that number had clearly delineated programs for two or more groups of students.

⁸As a clear case of curriculum padding--i.e., finding high-sounding phrases to justify the writing of such a document, the investigators offer the following bit of trivia from one of the guides: "We recommend that 10th grade teachers encourage daily a love of all reading."

⁹The repeated finding that the schools in this Study are doing far less for "non-college" than for college bound students may partially be a reflection of the basis for selecting schools. However, investigators believe that the weaknesses seen in most schools visited reflect even more a fundamental, almost shocking neglect in American education today. Comments on this finding appear throughout the report but especially in Chapters III, IV, VII, XI, and XII.

One should not leave the subject of curriculum building--or the writing of curricular materials--without noting the extreme variability in the quality of materials as reflected in the writing itself. After reading through most of eighty-five courses of study, one gets the impression that there are some teachers, or department chairmen, or curriculum coordinators who should leave the task in more competent hands. Perhaps the most egregious examples are the natural and unfortunate result of committee work--thus the amorphous tone and the fragmented nature of the guide. As a precaution against this committee flavor, it might be helpful for departments to commission a capable member to do the actual writing of the document after a consensus of the department has been achieved regarding its content. For the staff of the National Study is in agreement with the Commission on English (CEEB) in its view that the responsibility for creating a "curriculum by consensus" resides only within the department.¹⁰

Anyone reading a sizeable number of curriculum guides will be hard pressed to determine who the intended audience for them might be. As in the example above regarding 10th grade teachers, the audience would appear to be the teachers themselves, apparently the very authors of the document. Other guides are intended, it would seem, for new teachers only, or particularly for new teachers. Others (the outline guides reflecting the language and the format of the textbooks being used, are apparently written for visiting committees or superintendents since they surely do not help to give structure or identity to the actual course as it is taught. A few appear to be constructed with the students as audience, and these contain a good many admonishments concerning the proper form for writing

¹⁰ Commission on English, op. cit.

or speaking than do their counterparts. However, observers were generally impressed with certain kinds of student handouts--style books, annotated book lists, background information relating to authors, and individual study guides for specific works. Most successful were those developed by individual teachers for specific classes, although these could readily be modified to suit the purpose of other classes. Most courses of study seemed to be directed to some middle ground between teacher and student--perhaps in an attempt to avoid the tone of a directive on the one hand and on the other, to be as practical as possible for the classes themselves.

Certainly one of the most pressing reasons for preparing a course of study is to help new teachers or teachers new to the school. It is especially important that these people be able to see the whole perspective of the English program to know what and how to teach well. For such new teachers it is a forbidding task to be expected to read through hundreds of pages and sometimes many volumes of curricular materials to be able to find themselves in the total scheme of things. The fact is, few teachers ever take the time to read these materials through.¹¹

With few exceptions the materials sent to the project office were of fairly recent vintage. The few carried dates of 1950 or 1953, but more were apparently written or revised in the later 1950's or even later. Interestingly, many courses were labeled TENTATIVE, suggesting that an evolving and somewhat fluid program rather than the frozen quality so often associated with English programs.

¹¹In one school system which evidently takes great pride in its quantities of curricular materials, observers found that teachers not only did not comply with the courses as written, but that they actively resented them because they were written by a committee of a different professional persuasion from a different school.

In summary it is clear to the investigators that curriculum efforts divorced from the classroom and the students, however well intentioned and however ably led by informed and interested consultants, are of no great consequence to the actual process of teaching. New ideas, scholarly opinion, and classroom expertise are all necessary to develop wholesale curriculum ventures. It must be said, however, that the rewards of time-consuming, expensive "curriculum projects" must be found in the doing of it; the observers are of the opinion that beneficial results of such projects are not carried over into the classrooms unless the teachers themselves have had some influence on molding and shaping the final document.

Quite aside from the matter of teacher involvement in the process of curriculum making is the problem of curricular change. And unless the syllabus is open to teacher suggestion and modification, it will surely not meet the needs of today's classes, let alone tomorrow's.

Both as a practical matter and as a philosophical position, the investigators feel that the "evolving curriculum by consensus" as cited by the Commission on English is a very sound one. In the small number of schools where such a practice is an ongoing tradition, all teachers feel free to develop materials and then to share them with their colleagues to be used, ignored, or modified. Thus a professional dialogue is always to be found and the level of instruction and learning is advanced. If the organization of the department makes possible enlightened leadership by the chairman, if a program of supervision provides teachers with needed help and support, then ways can be found within the school to develop a design or structure for the English program which can positively affect classroom teaching.

CHAPTER IX

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AND THE PERSONAL READING OF STUDENTS

One of the fundamental expectations in the Study was that in schools achieving important results in English, books would be available and accessible in good quantity in both the classroom and library. The staff hypothesized that "Literature programs will not be confined to a single anthology, but there will be evidence of wide reading of many kinds of good books; there will be evidence of library withdrawals, ample classroom libraries, and guided individual reading programs. Books will be not only prevalent but accessible." Members of the project staff therefore expected the extensive personal reading found to be characteristic of the students, but were not prepared for the inadequacies in book supply and in classroom and school library use.

Staff investigators had expected classroom book collections to be much in evidence, and yet in only three schools were such classroom collections so frequently observed as to be rated a 1 on a five-point scale. Much more frequent were the low categories 4 and 5, observers feeling that in some twenty-eight schools (one-fourth of the total) such classroom book collections were seldom or never seen. Perhaps foolishly, the investigators had hoped to see students carrying library books or paperback books from class to class. In some instances, the hopes were gratified, but more often than not students spent their time instead lugging about great three and one-quarter pound anthologies. (The average paperback weighs about seven ounces.) In only about 30 percent of the classes did observers report students with books other than texts stored at their seats during class. And yet more in

evidence was the paperback than the library book--and these books (the quality of the library notwithstanding) were often quality paperbacks by authors like Tolstoy, Dostoyevsky, Faulkner, and Orwell.

The findings in no way suggest that the students in these schools are not reading widely and well. Data summarized later in this chapter indicates clearly that much reading is being done by the student in high school today, but that neither the library nor the English classroom is exercising an important influence on such reading.

General Characteristics of School Libraries

A major problem with school libraries is the magnitude of the collection. In 1960, the American Library Association (ALA) published certain standards for libraries in secondary schools and appended this qualification: "It would be untrue to state that very many schools now meet or exceed all the quantitative standards noted for school libraries in this publication."¹ And what was apparently true in 1960 still seems true four years later, if the schools in the Study are characteristic. Briefly, the ALA agreed upon these standards for libraries: for student populations of 200-999, there should be 6-10,000 books in the library; for schools of more than 1,000 students, 10 books per student; per capita expenditure for books each year should range from \$4.00-6.00; a senior high school should subscribe to 120 magazines and 3-6 newspapers; seating capacity should approximate 10 percent of student population; librarians should be present in numbers of 1 for every 300 students or major fraction thereof up to 900 students, after which 1 librarian for each 400 students or major fraction, and 1 clerk for every 600 students or major fraction thereof (i.e., a school of 4,102 students should ideally have 4 librarians and 2 clerks).

¹ American Library Association, Standards for School Libraries (Chicago: The Association, 1960).

Few schools visited in the Study meet all six of these standards, yet it was the rare librarian, aware of the shortcomings, who did not inform the interviewer of them. Of 104 schools in which the library was studied intensively, only 2 met any 3 of the standards, 11 met only 2, and another 30 met one or another of the standards. Sixty-one school libraries then measured up to none of the admittedly high standards established by the American Library Association.² Twenty-two or approximately one-fifth of the libraries met the standards for number of books, the most widely discussed standard; 15 met standards for seating capacity; 6 for per capita expenditure; 6 for number of magazines; 5 for number of librarians; and 4 for number of clerks. It is encouraging that the standard most often, though still infrequently, met is the commended number of books, and librarians in many schools were working conscientiously to improve their book collections. But the numbers are not the whole story. A library of 45,000 books may be less valuable than a library of 1,000 books if the latter is more widely circulated and read and the books are titles of high quality.

Regarding the general characteristics of libraries in the Study, the average number of books in the libraries was estimated at 11,925. Only 6 libraries had more than 20,000 books (1 had 42,540; another 30,000) whereas 2 libraries contained fewer than 5,000 books (with per capita holdings, however, of 10.9 and 12.75). In other ways, too, the libraries fall disappointingly short of national standards (Table 80). The mean number of students in the schools in the Study is 1,797, indicating that the mean number of books in the library should be 17,967. With respect to books per student, the libraries seem to be operating at about two-thirds efficiency.

²Although purposely high so as to serve as goals as well as standards, the ALA criteria have been endorsed by other scholarly and professional groups, including the National Council of Teachers of English.

The mean number of volumes per student (which, according to ALA, should be 10.0) is 6.9 books. Whereas ALA recommends the number of librarians and clerks should be 5 and 3 respectively, in the schools in the Study, only 1 school had 6 librarians, none had 5, 2 had 4, and 5 schools had 3 librarians. Forty-eight had two librarians, the other 46 had only 1. Likewise, 4 schools had 5 clerks; 3 had 4 clerks; 2 had 3; and 10 had 2. But 35 schools had no clerks at all and 45 had only 1.

Table 80

Characteristics of School Libraries as
Compared with ALA Standards
(n = 104 libraries)

Characteristic	Mean Numbers Study Schools	ALA Standard for Schools of This Size
Average Number of Books per Student	6.9	10
Number of Librarians	1.7	5
Number of Library Clerks	1.0	3
Number of Seats for Students	116	180
Annual Expenditure per Capita	\$2.28	\$4.00-6.00
Total Number of Magazines	81.8	120

To meet the ALA standards for seating, the libraries should have been able to accommodate 180 students, yet they averaged only 116 seats--a statistic which may indicate little about the intrinsic nature or value of the library holdings. If a library reflects certain standards of excellence, students will either stand up for long hours or sit on the floor to read the books on the shelves.

The per capita expenditure falls even farther below proposed

standards than other areas. Whereas the ALA recommends \$4.00-6.00 be spent each year for books (\$6.00 in the smaller schools), libraries in the Study averaged only \$2.28 per year per capita expenditure for all expenses: new books, replacements, and magazines. The average total amount spent was \$3,764.80 for new acquisitions, and with this money the libraries were able to purchase 991 books of which 242 were replacements. The average number of magazines was 81.8, 38.2 fewer than ALA recommendations. Of 91 libraries reporting on number of magazine subscriptions, 5 libraries had more than 20 magazines over and above ALA standards, but 13 libraries fell more than 70 magazines short of the mark, 1 library having only 16 magazines on its regular subscription list, 104 short of the recommended 120 magazines.

Although the findings indicate the many respects in which the libraries in these selected schools fall depressingly short of national standards endorsed by major professional groups, certain data indicate that library conditions may be somewhat better than that reflected by the national level. For example, high school libraries nationally report only six books per pupil, compared with the 6.9 titles of project schools, and the annual average expenditure nationally of \$1.85 per student is considerably less than the \$2.28 reported here.³

The number of books available for each student in each library may be the most critical single criterion of a good high school library. Certainly the investigators, comparing attitudes toward the libraries in ten schools with the largest per capita collections and ten schools with the smallest per capita collections, found important differences. Teachers, for one thing, showed a great tendency to recommend the school library when it

³Committee on National Interest, The National Interest and the Teaching of English, op. cit., p. 102.

contained more books. In the ten schools with well stocked libraries, 80 percent of the teachers noted on the questionnaire that they recommended use of the school library to pupils, whereas in the less well stocked group, only 57 percent of the teachers recommended that the students use the school library, compared with 66 percent in all schools of the Study.

Accessibility to Libraries

A library may be excellent, but if students do not find it accessible, it is worthless functionally. Most of the books in the libraries seemed available on open shelves. Fifty-seven libraries of 102 reporting stated that 100 percent of the books were on open shelves; another 31 schools had 97-99 percent of their books on open shelves. Of the other 13 schools, only 1 library had fewer than 90 percent of the books readily accessible to the students. So, at least, once the student is there, the books are available to him. Eighteen of the schools used the library for a study hall; another 83 did not. The library-study hall has both advantages and disadvantages. Librarians object to such use, particularly if it limits access of non-study hall students to books or imposes on library staffs the obligation of supervising students regularly. On the other hand, in some schools where students carry exceptionally heavy class schedules, where they are bus-transported into school before the first bell and bus-transported out shortly after the last bell, the library-study hall provides regular opportunity for students to explore and use the library. An average of 63.2 students were reported to use the library during a typical period in schools where the library served as a study hall and 10 fewer (53.2 students) used it where the library did not serve as a study hall.

In general, students are admitted to the libraries rather freely--if

they can secure release from other classes. In three schools there were no restrictions on the students going to the library at any time. In seventy-eight schools, a pass slip had to be obtained; in another thirty schools the pass slip was accompanied by further restrictions as to grade level, grade-point average, specific purpose for using library (e.g., no browsing, no doing mathematics, etc.); in some schools a limited number of permits were issued in the morning. But, with increasing course requirements and more extensive programs, study halls seem to be becoming a rare thing for many academic students, whether in the library or outside it. Thus access to the library before or after school becomes quite important.

The average library in the Study is open 446.7 minutes a day, but during only 17 percent of that time are all students free to visit the library. These libraries are open an average of 26.8 minutes before school starts and 48.7 minutes after school ends. The most common length of time for a library to be open before school is thirty minutes, with forty-one schools reporting this; another eleven libraries were open for forty-five minutes, and yet another nine, sixty minutes. After school, six libraries remained open for an hour and a half, and another four for even longer than that time, but as many as thirty-five schools had libraries remaining open thirty or fewer minutes after school. It would seem that such libraries are relatively inaccessible to the students unless some special provisions are made by those supervising the library. In suburban schools, particularly, or in any schools where a large majority of students cannot arrive early or cannot remain late (perhaps because of bus transportation schedules), an even more acute problem arises. How can the student achieve access to the library if he is unable to do so during out-of-class hours? Many of these suburban schools appear to project observers as the very institutions most likely to decrease assigned study halls and to increase class assignments of their largely college bound student population. With a different subject

every hour, the student finds it increasingly difficult to gain release to visit the library for any purpose, and the problem is compounded. Ultimately, of course, programs of independent study (See Chapter XIV) may offer one possible solution. In many schools, however, contemporary demands appear to magnify the importance of new kinds of library schedules. A few librarians reported experimenting with evening hours, two or three nights each week--some with success, some without; others were trying to keep the library open to students during lunch hour periods. Both approaches created difficulty in schools where libraries were located on second or third floor levels, without outside entrances, which necessitated opening the entire section of the building whenever the library was used. Clearly new physical arrangements and new library schedules are mandatory if students are to have access to the collections.

To observers most libraries in the Study seemed neither outstanding or completely inadequate. When asked to rate school libraries on a seven point scale ranging from "accessible library, well-stocked with good books," to "meager library, or one inaccessible to students," 60 percent of the ratings fell within the three middle categories on the scale as indicated in Table 81. However, thirty-two reports (almost one-third) are in the top two categories, compared with fourteen reports (8 percent) in the lowest, suggesting that observers may have been somewhat more impressed with some libraries than their overall descriptive reports indicate.

Student Use of Libraries

To assess the students' use of school and public libraries, as well as to study their personal reading habits, the staff constructed a special questionnaire (Instrument No. 22). An important study of student library

Table 81

Observer Ratings of Library Accessibility and Size
(n = 194 ratings of 102 libraries)

Rating Scale		Number of Libraries Rated in Category
<u>From</u> Accessible, Well-Stocked Library  To Inaccessible, Meager Library	1	13
	2	48
	3	27
	4	47
	5	43
	6	12
	7	3

use, conducted by Lowell A. Martin at the Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, Maryland, was published in 1963;¹ selected questions from the Martin study were incorporated into the reading questionnaire to make the data roughly comparable. In each of the 116 schools visited by project observers, six teachers were asked to present the reading questionnaire to one of their classes. Approximately one-half of the classes were college preparatory; one-half were non-college classes; classes at every grade level were represented equally. In all, some 16,089 questionnaires were completed by students with respect to their reading and library habits, although the total number of usable responses to most questions was somewhat less than this total.

The students reported that they had borrowed or obtained an astounding

⁴ Lowell A. Martin, Students and the Pratt Library: Challenge and Opportunity (Baltimore, Md.: Enoch Pratt Free Library, July, 1963).

127,629 books during the month prior to being surveyed, an average of almost eight books per student. Moreover, as Table 82 indicates, more of these books were borrowed from the public library than from any other source. The students reported obtaining 43,142 titles from the public library, 24,634 paperback titles from various sources, 26,420 titles from the school library, 18,843 from the home library, 11,590 from friends, and 3,000 from book clubs. The mean number of library titles borrowed by students during the month from public libraries was 7.4, compared with a mean of 4 titles in the Martin studies in Baltimore, suggesting that here, again, as in so much of the data in the Study for which comparable information is available, the students in these selected schools borrow more library books.⁵ However, the sources of student reading are revealed to be far broader in the present Study. Whereas Martin reported 82 percent of all books borrowed came from school or public libraries, students in the

Table 82

Total Number of Books Borrowed in the Previous Month
as Reported by Students on All Tracks and at All Grade Levels
(n = 16,089)

Source	Number of Books Borrowed	Number of Responses	Average Number of Books per Student
Public Library	43,142	9,414	4.6
School Library	26,420	9,589	2.8
Paperback Books	24,634	9,501	2.6
Home Library	18,843	7,769	2.4
Friends	11,590	6,952	1.7
Book Clubs	3,000	1,248	2.8

⁵Ibid., p. 17.

Sources of Student Books During Month Preceding Survey



PUBLIC LIBRARY

43,142 books



PAPERBACKS

26,634 books



SCHOOL LIBRARY

26,420 books



HOME LIBRARY

18,843 books



FRIENDS

11,590 books



BOOK CLUBS

3,000 books

present Study report using these sources for only 54 percent of the titles obtained. Perhaps because of the use of other sources, only 20 percent of the titles were obtained from school libraries.

Despite the clear preference for the public library as a source for books, a slightly greater number of individual students reported using the school library instead of either paperbacks or the public library during the thirty days preceding the survey (Table 83). Actually, except for differences in students who never use either the school or public library or those who use such libraries more than ten times monthly (necessarily requiring much greater use of the school library), the differences in frequency of library use are not great. Table 84 presents the comparative data, as well as data from the Pratt Library report. Only 16 percent of the students claimed they did not use the school library at all in the previous month, whereas 23.3 percent of the students had not been to the public library in that time; 17.2 percent of the students claimed to have used the library more than ten times, whereas only 8.3 percent of them used the public library that often in the preceding month. Part of this frequent use, however, is probably accountable in school libraries serving as study halls in 17 percent of the schools--especially since the responses to other categories indicate a great degree of similarity in response. The close resemblance of the percentages reported in this Study and in the Martin study in all but extreme categories is to be noted.

More important, perhaps, were responses indicating student dissatisfaction with library collections. Only 47.7 percent of the students thought the school library had all the books they usually needed for school; and even fewer, only 26.6 percent, felt the school library had all the books they liked to read for pleasure.⁶ When asked which library, public or

⁶In the Pratt Library Reports, the percent of students objecting to school book collections ranged from 49.3 percent to 59.4 percent. Cf. Martin, loc. cit.

Table 83

Rank Order of Use of Sources of Books Reported by Students

Rank Order	Source	Rank Order of Number of Students Using Each Source (n = 16,089 students)	Students	Source	Rank Order of Total Number of Books Borrowed from Each Source	Books	Source	Rank Order of Number of Books per Student Borrowed	Average Number of Books
1	School Libraries		9,589	Public Libraries		43,124	Public Libraries		4.6
2	Paperback		9,501	School Libraries		26,420	School Libraries		2.8
3	Public Libraries		9,414	Paperback		24,634	Paperback		2.6
4	Home Libraries		7,769	Home Libraries		18,843	Book Clubs		2.5
5	Friends		6,952	Friends		11,590	Home Libraries		2.4
6	Book Clubs		1,248	Book Clubs		3,000	Friends		1.7
7	Other		835	Other		2,666			

Table 84

Comparative Use of Public and School Libraries by Students During Preceding Month
(n = 15,875)

Percentages for Study	Library	Not at All	1-2 times	3-5 times	6-10 times	More than 10 times	No Response
Percentages for Study	School	16.0	24.0	27.8	13.7	17.2	1.3
	Public	23.3	24.7	27.2	13.6	8.3	2.9
Percentages for Pratt Library Study*	School	19.5	36.7	25.6	14.0	4.2	---
	Public	9.2	31.4	38.8	15.6	5.0	---

*Lowell Martin, *op. cit.*, p. 20.

school, they preferred to use, 68 percent of the students said the public library. The overwhelming reason behind the preference (stated by 7,674 of the 10,933 preferring the public library) was that the public library provided a greater and better collection. The next most common reason mentioned by only 502 was that the public library stayed open longer. Of the 4,159 students preferring the school library, 2,420 stated as their reason that the school library was more convenient. The reasons offered for preferring the school library were in most instances with reference to matters extrinsic to the value of books themselves (Table 85).

Table 85

Student Reasons for Preferring School Libraries and Public Libraries

Reasons for Preferring School Library
(n = 4,159 students)

Rank	Reason	Number
1	More convenient	2,420
2	No specific reason	1,206
3	Easier to locate books in	288
4	More familiar with school literature	163
5	No public library	38
6	Books are simpler	37
7	No card at public library	7

Reasons for Preferring Public Library
(n = 10,933 students)

Rank	Reason	Number
1	Greater and better book collections	7,674
2	No specific reason	1,302
3	Stays open longer	502
4	Convenient	366
5	Better reference materials	278
6	Librarians aren't so strict	249
7	Quieter	187
8	More comfortable	136
9	Not familiar with school library	106
10	Better organized	64
11	More space	56
12	Facilities for music with study	9
13	Lighter, gayer books	2

If additional evidence is needed to demonstrate that the size and nature of the school book collection affects student use, it was obtained in a comparison of library use in ten schools with the highest per capita book collections with ten schools with the lowest per capita collections (Table 86). The findings indicate a pronounced increase in regular and

Table 86

Students Use of School Library
According to per Capita Holdings

Number of Times School Library Used in Previous Month	Percentage in Schools with High per Capita Holdings	Percentage in Schools with Low per Capita Holdings
0	8.0	28.0
1-2	20.0	29.0
3-5	26.0	24.0
2-10	19.0	9.0
More than 10	26.0	7.0
No Response	1.0	3.0

frequent use, reflecting the increase in the number of books per student. The students' confidence in the adequacy of the library, especially for school work, also increases perceptibly with an increase in holdings per student (Table 87). Some 51 percent of the students in the ten schools with high per capita holdings found the library collections adequate for school use, compared with 38 percent of the students in schools with low per capita holdings, and 47.7 percent in schools in general. However, the percentage of students who indicate approval for personal reading selections does not rise above 27 percent even in the high per capita libraries.

Clearly, then, even at its best the school library does not command the same allegiance from students as does the public library. Moreover, in

Table 87

Student Response to Adequacy of School Library
Related to the Size of the Book Collection

		Percentage of Students Responding in Schools with High per Capita Holdings	Percentage of Students Responding in Schools with Low per Capita Holdings
Q: School library has books needed for school work	Yes	51.0	38.0
	No	38.0	36.0
	Don't know	11.0	26.0
Q: School library has books you want to read just for pleasure	Yes	27.0	24.0
	No	60.0	49.0
	Don't know	13.0	27.0

comparing responses from tenth and twelfth grade students, it is apparent that interest in the school library declines throughout the high school years as use of the public library increases. For example, 31 percent of all tenth graders in the Study had not used the public library during the preceding month, whereas this percentage drops to 16 percent by grade twelve. The percentage relying on the school library for personal reading choices declines from 31 percent to 26 percent. And in a special question directed at 2,317 twelfth grade students, project investigators found that 83 percent mentioned the public library as a major source of books, compared with only 55 percent mentioning the school library (Table 88). This increased reliance of students on public libraries undoubtedly reflects in part the maturity of their interests and the search for additional sources of information as they approach adulthood or cope with difficult school assignments. Partially the popularity of the public library is traceable to the fact that "the librarians aren't so strict," a reason advanced by 43 percent of all tenth graders and 51 percent of the twelfth grade students. And partially, too, student use of either public or school libraries may

reflect teacher recommendations. A comparison of data from the teacher questionnaire (Instrument No. 21) concerning sources of books recommended by teachers with their actual use as reported by students, showed that when teachers actively call attention to the school library, the percentage of students using the facilities increases slightly (from 60 to 62 percent). When teachers recommend the public library, the percentage of students reporting frequent use increases by 7 percent. When teachers recommend paperbacks, the percent of students frequently reading such titles increases 14 percent, from 60 to 74 percent. By working with school librarians, teachers of English can do much to promote library use.

Table 88

Sources of Books Borrowed During the Previous Year
as Reported by Twelfth Grade Advanced Students
(n = 2,317 students)

Source	Number of Responses	Percentage of Students Mentioning
Public Library	1,912	83
Purchased	1,517	66
School Library	1,281	55
Home Library	1,039	45
Borrowed from Friends	749	32
University or College Library	313	14
Borrowed from Teachers	227	10
Classroom Library	178	8
Other	20	1

The Selectivity of School Libraries

Whatever the variety of reasons for students' rejection of school libraries, at least as a source of books for personal reading, clearly the

primary reason is determined by the low or high degree of selectivity of the collections. This problem is illustrated by two special studies conducted by the project staff.

In interviews with librarians, staff members obtained copies of the periodicals to which the schools subscribe; and separately, some 14,874 students in these schools indicated what magazines and periodicals they regularly read. In Table 89 and 90 the comparison demonstrates not only the insatiable interests of teen-agers in the Study, but the absence of any close correlation between magazines available in school libraries and those read frequently by students. For instance, the one magazine found in almost all of the libraries, Saturday Review, is ranked twenty-seventh in popularity by adolescents. Post, Life, Newsweek, Atlantic Monthly, and Harper's are available in nearly equal numbers; the first three are rated high on student reading lists, the others miss the list of the top twenty-six favorites. [Indeed, teachers report separately that, except for local newspapers (37.8 percent) the periodicals most frequently introduced in regular English classrooms are Atlantic (32.7 percent), Reader's Digest (32.5 percent), Harper's (25.8 percent), and Practical English (24.3 percent) (Table 92)]. These findings are interesting when viewed in relation to student preference findings. It is probably fortunate that teachers spend little time "teaching" Life, Look, and other popular journals; they may already spend too much time on the Reader's Digest, considering that it is rated as the sixth most frequently read magazine. But it seems discouraging to find that class time spent on more thoughtful periodicals like Harper's and Atlantic Monthly seem to have had little effect on reading preferences. Actually Mad magazine accounted for forty more readers in the survey than either of the two last named periodicals.

Table 89

**School Magazine Subscriptions
Compared with Student Magazine Preferences**

Periodical	Libraries (n = 91)		Students (n = 15,874)	
	Rank Order of Frequency	Percent Subscribing	Rank Order of Preference	Number of Times Mentioned
Saturday Review	1	99	27	163
Reader's Digest	2	98	6	1,877
U. S. News & World Report	3.5	97	12	575
Newsweek	3.4	97	7	1,616
Science Digest	5.5	96		
National Geographic	5.5	96	9	855
Time	7	95	4	3,212
Popular Mechanics	9	93	26	168
Scientific American	9	93	24	176
Post	9	93	2	4,700
Life	11	92	1	7,455
Atlantic Monthly	12.5	91	(2 percent)	113
Harper's	12.5	91	(2 percent)	118
Sports Illustrated	14.5	90	10	850
Popular Science	14.5	90	19	232
Current History	16	85		
American Heritage	17	81		
Theatre Arts	19	80		
Vital Speeches	19	80		
Seventeen	19	80	5	1,988
Look	21	79	3	4,291
Ladies Home Journal	22	73	11	589
McCalls	23	55	8	1,039
Hot Rod	24	48	13	398
Sports	25	25	15	333
Ingenue	26	12	14	338

Table 90

**Fifteen Most Popular Magazines with Adolescents
Compared to School Library Holdings**

Rank in Student Popularity	Periodical	Number of Times Ranked First by Students	Number of Times Mentioned by Students	Percentage of Libraries with Periodicals
1	Life	4,117	7,455	92
2	Post	1,743	4,700	93
3	Time	1,602	3,212	95
4	Look	1,356	4,291	79
5	Seventeen	892	1,988	80
6	Reader's Digest	632	1,877	98
7	Newsweek	577	1,616	97
8	McCalls	302	1,039	55
9	Sports Illustrated	297	850	90
10	National Geographic	285	855	96
11	Hot Rod	321	398	48
12	Sports	169	333	25
13	Ingenue	120	338	12
14	Ladies Home Journal	111	589	73
15	Playboy	106	264	0

Table 91

Differences in Magazine Preferences
Reported by Various Student Groups
(n = 13,291)

Periodical	Boys	Girls	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12
Life	48.1	47.4	47.6	47.8	48.2
Post	30.3	28.2	29.6	29.8	28.1
Look	25.8	28.2	26.7	27.8	26.6
Time	21.6	18.1	16.7	19.4	23.9
Seventeen	.1	24.1	13.1	13.6	11.8
Reader's Digest	9.6	13.9	10.1	12.6	12.7
Newsweek	10.9	9.0	7.1	9.1	14.1
McCalls	.5	12.6	7.2	7.2	6.2
Sports Illustrated	11.2	.6	5.8	5.7	5.4
National Geographic	6.2	4.4	5.6	5.2	4.9
Ladies Home Journal	.3	6.7	3.4	3.7	3.9
U. S. News & World Report	4.2	3.1	2.5	2.9	5.6
Hot Rod	5.3	.04	2.3	3.0	2.3
Sports	4.6	.14	2.6	2.3	1.7
Ingenue	.03	4.2	2.3	2.4	1.8

Table 92

Extent to Which Selected Magazines Are Used in Classroom
(n = 1,331 teachers responding)

Magazine	Percent Responding			
	Frequently	Occasionally	Never	No Response
Harper's	4.5	25.8	63.4	6.3
Atlantic	6.8	32.7	54.5	6.0
Reader's Digest	12.2	32.5	49.1	6.2
Literary Cavalcade	11.5	21.9	60.0	6.6
Senior Scholastic	3.5	16.5	72.3	7.7
Read	2.9	5.5	82.6	7.0
Practical English	10.7	24.3	58.4	6.6
Newspaper	10.8	37.8	40.4	11.0
Other	7.8	9.8	26.4	56.0

What is most disturbing in comparing library magazine collections and pupil preferences are the number of highly regarded magazines which are absent from large numbers of school libraries. Seventeen, ranked fifth by students, is absent from 20 percent of the libraries; Look, ranked third, is missing from as many. Hot Rod, Sports, and Ingenue, rated thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth in student popularity, are present in only 48, 25, and 12 percent of the libraries. No one will argue that absence of such periodicals prevents students from important literary experiences, but such absence may indeed contribute to the lack of interest in any library reading. Librarians are obviously justified in excluding periodicals like Playboy from their collections, however great its popularity. But questionable is such exclusion when extended to specialized magazines created especially for adolescents. Such magazines may be of particular interest to non-academic

students; for this reason there is a place for periodicals like HiFi, Opera News, Western Horseman, Electronics World, Road and Track, and perhaps with some student populations, Surf Guide. Thus, one of the major problems identified by the National Study is the comparative lack of interest of high school students in school libraries. Unnecessarily restrictive limitations on the collection of periodicals may contribute to this lack of interest.

Even more disturbing than the problem of selectivity of periodical collections is the uncertain quality of the book collections even in the Study's better English programs. Concern about the adequacy of the school library, as a source of books for personal reading, led the project staff to develop a check list of fifty titles as one method of assessing the nature of the collections. The check list (Instrument No. 13) was based on titles which gifted college students, in a recent study by Whitman, had recalled as their most memorable high school reading experiences.⁷ To these titles were added the names of a few mature books, some of which (like some on the Whitman list) had often been questioned as appropriate for reading by high school students. The findings for eighty-four of the Study's schools are presented in Table 93.

Not surprising, perhaps, is that the one book mentioned as most significant by the gifted students in the Whitman survey, Salinger's Catcher in the Rye, was on the shelves in only 50 percent of the school libraries. Exodus, the number two reading choice of the students, was available in 83 percent; The Ugly American, number three, in 75 percent; Look Homeward Angel, number four, in 80 percent. The books found most frequently in all or almost all of the libraries were standard "classics" of school reading:

⁷ Robert S. Whitman, loc. cit.

Table 93

Availability of Selected Titles in School Libraries
(n = 84 school libraries)

Title	Percent of Libraries with Title	Number of Students Reporting Book Significant
The Scarlet Letter	100	
A Tale of Two Cities	100	13
Return of the Native	99	13
Wuthering Heights	99	
Gone with the Wind	98	21
The Good Earth	98	
Jane Eyre	98	7
Of Human Bondage	98	27
Old Man and the Sea	98	5
War and Peace	98	7
The Forsyte Saga	96	6
Les Miserables	96	8
Moby Dick	96	18
Pilgrim's Progress	96	6
Vanity Fair	96	
Babbitt	95	
Ben Hur	95	
Cry, the Beloved Country	94	20
Pride and Prejudice	93	38
Animal Farm	92	8
Anna Karenina	92	7
To Kill a Mockingbird	92	7
Crime and Punishment	89	27
Way of All Flesh	88	
Brothers Karamazov	87	19
1984	85	14
Dr. Zhivago	83	13
Exodus	83	30
The Wall	83	
Advise and Consent	80	18
Look Homeward, Angel	80	27
Grapes of Wrath	75	9
The Ugly American	75	28
An American Tragedy	74	
Brave New World	69	17
Heart of Darkness	68	
The Once and Future King	65	
A Death in the Family	61	
Lord of the Flies	54	10
The Magic Mountain	52	5
You Can't Go Home Again	52	6
The Sound and the Fury	51	
Catcher in the Rye	50	39
The Razor's Edge	49	6
A Portrait of an Artist	46	8
Franny and Zooey	37	7
The Stranger	26	
The Fountainhead	23	13
Atlas Shrugged	12	21
Generation of Vipers	10	

The Scarlet Letter, A Tale of Two Cities, Return of the Native, Wuthering Heights. These must and should be present, of course, even when they rank low in the memories of our able student readers. Project observers frequently wished that more librarians would spend a portion of their replacement budgets to purchase attractive new editions of some of these standards, rather than place shopworn, tattered, sometimes poorly printed copies of early century vintage, alongside crisp and inviting new works of considerably inferior quality. What is most disturbing, however, is the preponderance of modern fiction among the titles available in not more than half of the libraries: The Sound and the Fury, The Razor's Edge (ranked sixth by students in the Whitman study), A Portrait of an Artist as a Young Man (ranked eighth by students), Franny and Zooey (seventh), Camus' The Stranger. In one school a staff member found six biographies about William Faulkner and not one book written by him!

The teachers and usually the librarians in these schools claim that they are either "completely free" (13.2 percent) or "free but subject to the approval of the department head" (38.6 percent) to select reading materials for the students. Yet one wonders how much responsible selection is actually being practiced. The majority of English teachers prefer to have their students seek books to read from the school library (65.8 percent) rather than from the public library (12.5 percent) or elsewhere. Why? Because it is safer? Yet the findings emerging from this Study suggest a dual book culture for the reading of young people--the acceptable, safe books read in the school library, and the preferred titles (sometimes of higher literary quality) which can be found in the public library and read on one's own at home. Perhaps this is as it should be. But one wonders how students will acquire the needed help and guidance necessary to read Faulkner and Joyce

and other major modern writers. Teachers talk much about using our programs in literature to pass along to young people our common cultural heritage. Yet part of the intellectual heritage of America today is the vigorous realistic tradition of twentieth century writers. Should not we find better ways of coping with this tradition in our schools?

Personal Reading of Students

To obtain detailed information on the personal reading of students in the schools of the National Study, a reading questionnaire (Instrument No. 22) was administered to six classes in every school visited. Some 13,291 usable questionnaires were processed, 52 percent from girls, 48 percent from boys. Of the students, 3,959 were in the tenth grade; 4,673, eleventh; 4,125, the twelfth; and the grade level was unlisted for 734. Sixty-four percent of the students considered themselves enrolled in an academic course, a percentage probably considerably in excess of what counselors or teachers probably would have indicated; 15 percent admitted taking a general program; 10 percent were enrolled in commercial studies. However, as many as 77 percent on the questionnaire said they planned to continue their education to college, a considerably higher percentage than school records demonstrated, but indicative of the climate of student opinion in these schools which seem to place a premium on academic achievement and goals. Uncertainty about college plans was expressed by 15 percent in grade 10, a percentage that decreased to 10 percent two years later; a steady 10 percent said they planned not to go to college.

Assuming then, despite the attempt to secure a more heterogeneous group, that the sampling represents a preponderance of college bound youth, what do the results suggest about their habits of personal reading? First, they suggest that students devote a substantial portion of their time to personal reading as well as to study-type reading for homework. Tables 94

Table 94

Average Time Spent Each Week by Students
Reading for Homework and Other Purposes
(n = 13,291 students)

Type of Reading	Less than 1 Hour a Week	1-2 Hours a Week	3-5 Hours a Week	6-10 Hours a Week	More than 10 Hours a Week	No Response
Reading for Homework Outside of School	5.7	16.5	43.0	25.9	7.4	1.5
Reading Books Besides Books for School	20.6	29.8	31.8	11.5	4.8	1.5

and 95 indicate that the modal number of hours expended weekly for both homework and personal reading is three to five hours, which does not vary substantially with sex or grade level. As might be expected, terminal students report that they do somewhat less personal reading than their peers who are planning college careers; it is interesting to know, however, that they devote almost as much time to reading for homework as do the other group.

To provide insight into the amount of time students devote to reading in comparison with time expended on other activities, some 2,317 advanced twelfth grade students were asked to estimate their involvement in seven typical activities during both afternoon and evening. Table 96 shows that studying/reading was ranked first by students, followed in order by school clubs, television, and home employment. When weighted totals are computed to allow for differences in ranking, the heavy emphasis on study/reading becomes even more apparent. This apparent devotion to reading (not unexpected of advanced high school students) when added to data presented previously to indicate average weekly reading time of the students, lends additional support to the claim that the schools are academically oriented.

The 13,291 students completing the questionnaires were asked to indicate which of twelve kinds of books they most enjoyed reading. (The results in Table 97 are categorized according to sex, grade level, and program.) In general, the findings appear to agree with most earlier studies of reading interests of adolescents in high school.⁸ Certain changes in reading interest occur, of course, as individuals progress in high school; for instance, some 45 percent of the students like to read

⁸ George Norvell, What Boys and Girls Like to Read (Norristown, N. J.: Silver Burdett Co., 1958).

Table 95

Student Time Spent Reading Each Week for Classwork
(n = 13,291)*

	Boys	Girls	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12	College	Undecided	Terminal
Less than One Hour	480 (7.7)	239 (3.4)	257 (6.5)	222 (4.8)	210 (5.1)	360 (3.6)	194 (11.0)	165 (12.5)
1-2 Hours	1,182 (19.0)	950 (13.6)	730 (18.4)	733 (15.7)	577 (14.0)	1,448 (14.3)	366 (20.8)	306 (23.2)
3-5 Hours	2,698 (43.3)	2,985 (42.6)	1,821 (46.0)	1,957 (41.9)	1,703 (41.3)	4,323 (42.7)	778 (44.2)	567 (43.0)
6-10 Hours	1,415 (22.7)	2,080 (29.7)	879 (22.2)	1,282 (27.4)	1,211 (29.4)	2,918 (28.9)	338 (19.2)	228 (17.3)
More than 10 Hours	371 (6.0)	688 (9.8)	221 (5.6)	424 (9.1)	383 (9.3)	940 (9.3)	74 (4.2)	43 (3.3)

Time Spent Each Week Reading Other than Classwork

Less than One Hour	1,451 (23.3)	1,196 (17.1)	801 (20.2)	924 (19.8)	839 (20.3)	1,806 (17.9)	422 (24.0)	400 (30.3)
1-2 Hours	1,878 (30.2)	2,177 (31.1)	1,162 (29.4)	1,458 (31.2)	1,316 (31.9)	3,114 (30.8)	542 (30.8)	393 (29.8)
3-5 Hours	1,894 (30.4)	2,403 (34.3)	1,295 (32.7)	1,509 (32.3)	1,323 (32.1)	3,426 (33.9)	523 (29.7)	336 (25.5)
6-10 Hours	690 (11.1)	844 (12.0)	478 (12.1)	539 (11.5)	443 (10.7)	1,230 (12.2)	179 (10.2)	121 (9.2)
More than 10 Hours	280 (4.5)	349 (5.0)	202 (5.1)	208 (4.5)	183 (4.4)	487 (4.8)	78 (4.4)	61 (4.6)

*Percentage figures do not total 100% because a small number of students did not respond to each question.

Table 96

Typical Activities After School and in Evening as
Ranked by Twelfth Grade Advanced Students
(n = 2,317)

AS = After School
EVE = Evening
T = Total

Rank Order	Activity		Number of Students Ranking					Weighted Totals
			1	2	3	4	5	
1	Studying or Reading	AS	629	517	286	111	30	63.23
		EVE	<u>1,636</u>	<u>284</u>	<u>90</u>	<u>32</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>96.54</u>
		T	2,265	801	376	143	34	159.77
2	School Clubs	AS	455	478	245	90	40	51.46
		EVE	<u>33</u>	<u>222</u>	<u>202</u>	<u>102</u>	<u>47</u>	<u>19.10</u>
		T	488	701	447	192	87	70.56
3	Watching Television	AS	84	222	184	143	88	22.34
		EVE	<u>91</u>	<u>512</u>	<u>315</u>	<u>192</u>	<u>85</u>	<u>39.17</u>
		T	175	734	499	335	173	61.51
4	Employment at Home	AS	183	215	191	127	45	26.47
		EVE	<u>72</u>	<u>197</u>	<u>182</u>	<u>106</u>	<u>66</u>	<u>19.72</u>
		T	255	412	373	233	111	46.19
5	Clubs Outside of School	AS	44	133	149	89	67	14.44
		EVE	<u>48</u>	<u>310</u>	<u>271</u>	<u>112</u>	<u>72</u>	<u>25.89</u>
		T	92	443	420	201	139	40.33
6	School Athletics	AS	323	142	89	54	35	25.93
		EVE	<u>20</u>	<u>65</u>	<u>101</u>	<u>102</u>	<u>46</u>	<u>9.13</u>
		T	343	207	190	156	81	35.06
7	Employment Away from Home	AS	229	86	69	43	33	18.15
		EVE	<u>127</u>	<u>98</u>	<u>70</u>	<u>49</u>	<u>42</u>	<u>13.77</u>
		T	356	184	139	92	75	31.92

Table 97

Kinds of Books Students Like to Read as Reported on Reading Questionnaire
(n = 13,291)

Kind	Boys	Girls	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12	College	Undecided	Terminal
Detective, Mystery Stories	2,190 (35.7)	3,280 (46.8)	1,785 (45.1)	1,936 (41.4)	1,486 (36.0)	4,005 (39.6)	824 (46.8)	634 (48.1)
Adventure, War, Sea Stories	4,055 (65.1)	2,105 (30.0)	1,783 (45.0)	2,191 (46.9)	1,950 (47.3)	4,910 (48.6)	771 (43.8)	468 (35.5)
Romance, Love Stories	360 (5.8)	4,904 (70.0)	1,587 (40.1)	1,893 (40.5)	1,589 (38.5)	3,705 (36.6)	786 (44.6)	744 (56.4)
Humorous Stories	3,281 (52.7)	5,008 (71.4)	2,443 (61.7)	2,955 (63.2)	2,597 (63.0)	6,391 (63.2)	1,055 (59.9)	809 (61.3)
Science Fiction	2,826 (45.4)	1,712 (24.4)	1,459 (36.9)	1,596 (34.2)	1,286 (31.2)	3,512 (34.7)	628 (35.7)	377 (28.6)
Sports Stories	2,724 (43.7)	595 (8.5)	1,123 (28.4)	1,100 (23.5)	921 (22.3)	2,562 (25.3)	486 (27.6)	263 (19.9)
Poetry	516 (8.3)	1,945 (27.7)	563 (14.2)	899 (19.2)	925 (22.4)	2,031 (20.1)	245 (13.9)	173 (13.1)
Biography	2,068 (33.2)	3,604 (51.4)	1,612 (40.7)	1,991 (42.6)	1,847 (44.8)	4,658 (46.1)	592 (33.6)	408 (30.9)
Books on History	2,166 (34.8)	2,071 (29.5)	1,132 (28.6)	1,524 (32.6)	1,433 (34.7)	3,607 (35.7)	388 (22.0)	240 (18.2)
Books on Current National or World Problems	1,630 (26.2)	1,624 (23.2)	769 (19.4)	1,084 (23.2)	1,322 (32.1)	2,836 (28.0)	283 (16.1)	132 (10.0)
Science Books	1,675 (26.9)	656 (9.4)	716 (18.1)	784 (16.8)	722 (17.5)	1,998 (19.8)	216 (12.3)	113 (8.6)
Any Other Kind	1,290 (20.7)	1,587 (22.6)	779 (19.7)	1,014 (21.7)	991 (24.0)	2,322 (23.0)	323 (18.3)	225 (17.1)

detective stories in the tenth grade, but only 36 percent in the twelfth grade. Conversely, there is a higher interest in poetry in the senior year; only 14 percent of the students find poetry interesting in the tenth grade, whereas 22 percent find it interesting in the twelfth grade. Sport stories, written so often for the adolescent, decline in interest; 28 percent read them in the tenth grade, only 22 percent in the twelfth grade. But books on contemporary problems are regarded with increasing importance as students become interested in social and political matters. In the tenth grade, only 19 percent of the students evinced any interest in current problems; in the twelfth grade, 32 percent of them were interested.

As all studies of adolescent reading interests have discovered, there are six vital interest areas. Some 47 percent of the girls are interested in detective and mystery stories, whereas only 35 percent of the boys show any interest. However, 65 percent of the boys read adventure stories in contrast to 30 percent of the girls. And, of course, 70 percent of the girls are interested in stories about romance; only 6 percent of the boys are similarly interested. To be expected, 44 percent of the boys read sport stories, only 8 percent of the girls read them. Fifty-one percent of the girls are interested in books on biography; only 33 percent of the boys show any interest. The boys seem more inclined to read books about history, 35 percent as opposed to 30 percent of the girls. And, again, the boys show a greater interest in science, 27 percent as opposed to 9 percent of the girls.

To further distinguish the motivations and interests of the young people in the Study, students were asked to indicate in which of four ways they would prefer to be remembered after their high school careers ended: as a brilliant student, as a good athlete, as a leader in activities, as popular among students. These categories were patterned on student choices

used by Martin in his Pratt Library study. He reported that the choices in order were 32.5 percent for "popular among students," 30.5 percent, "brilliant student," 19.4 percent "leader in activities," and 17.6 percent "good athlete."⁹ The responses of students in the National Study, presented in Table 98, differ considerably; the high ranking of "brilliant student" by approximately one-third of them indicates both the selective nature of the students sampled and their academic motivations. In all probability, the same motivation that leads these students to reading leads also to their interest in academic achievement.

An examination of the reading patterns of students expressing these different motivations reveals a few interesting differences (Table 98). As might be expected, those who wished to be remembered as "brilliant students" tend to do slightly more reading than others, followed by students who desired to be remembered as "leaders." Those concerned with athletics and popularity do somewhat less reading, although the differences are not great. With respect to preferences for specific kinds of books, however, certain patterns shift dramatically. Those students interested in athletics retain their interest in sports stories (60.7 percent) in marked contrast to the other groups (only 18.3 percent of the "brilliant" students and 16.1 percent of the "leaders" prefer such reading). The "athletes" also reject stories of love and romance, poetry, and to a lesser extent, biography, in contrast to the other groups which express far greater interest in such reading. So pronounced are some of these differences that they suggest, of course, real differences in interests and values underlying the student choice. Sports stories, adventure and war stories, and humorous stories are the preferred selections of the would-be athletes. Those who wished to be remembered as

⁹ Lowell A. Martin, op. cit., p. 14.

Table 98

Reading Habits of Students Divided
According to How They Want to Be Remembered

Reading Each Week for Homework	Brilliant Student		Good Athlete		Leader in Activities		Popular among Students	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Less than 1 Hour	180	4.01	188	10.49	81	2.60	246	7.23
1-2 Hours	573	12.77	424	23.65	424	13.62	640	18.80
3-5 Hours	1,855	41.34	767	42.78	1,370	44.02	1,524	44.77
6-10 Hours	1,341	29.89	330	18.40	941	30.24	758	22.27
+ 10 Hours	481	10.72	67	3.74	266	8.55	203	5.96

Reading Each Week
Other than Homework

Less than 1 Hour	716	15.96	531	29.62	498	16.00	817	24.00
1-2 Hours	1,288	28.71	558	31.12	1,014	32.58	1,066	31.32
3-5 Hours	1,541	34.34	472	26.32	1,095	35.19	1,032	30.32
6-10 Hours	633	14.11	167	9.31	372	11.95	311	9.14
+ 10 Hours	283	6.31	52	2.90	120	3.86	157	4.61

Kinds of Books
Preferred

Detective and Mystery Stories	1,799	40.09	665	37.09	1,305	41.93	1,543	45.33
Adventure, War, Sea Stories	2,050	45.69	1,181	65.87	1,277	41.03	1,456	42.77
Romance, Love Stories	1,743	38.85	194	10.82	1,576	50.64	1,597	46.92
Humorous Stories	2,786	62.09	933	52.04	2,131	68.48	2,195	64.48
Science Fiction	1,668	37.17	701	39.10	923	29.66	1,101	32.34
Sports Stories	865	19.28	1,089	60.74	501	16.10	775	22.77
Poetry	1,062	23.67	106	5.91	697	22.40	495	14.54
Biography	2,090	46.58	547	30.51	1,564	50.26	1,289	37.87
Books on History	1,735	38.67	495	27.61	1,052	33.80	803	23.59
Books on Current National or World Problems	1,353	30.15	276	15.39	916	29.43	597	12.54
Science Books	1,121	24.98	288	16.06	441	14.17	394	11.57
Other	1,097	24.45	301	16.79	678	21.79	679	19.95

"brilliant students" Tend to choose humorous stories, biography, and stories of war and adventure. Those seeking "popularity" choose humorous stories, stories of romance, and detective and mystery stories; whereas students who wished to be remembered as "leaders in activities" share the interest in humorous stories and love stories but choose biography as the third major field.

A comparison was also made of the personal reading of college bound and non-college students. Understandably, those with college plans spend more time reading for both homework and personal purposes. Twenty-nine percent of the college bound read six to ten hours per week as opposed to 17 percent of the non-college students; only 4 percent of the college students read less than one hour per week as opposed to 13 percent of the non-college students. Fifty-two percent of the college bound spend more than three hours per week on personal reading, compared with only 40 percent of the non-college bound students. Non-college students seem to prefer fictional books; 48 percent of them admit that they like to read detective and mystery novels, 56 percent like novels of romance. Comparable percentages for the college bound are 39 and 36 percent. The college students show a greater interest in history, current problems, and science, with 46, 36, and 28 percent expressing interest in reading in these areas, compared with 31, 18, and 10 percent of the non-college students.

Guided and Required Reading

The evidence is substantial, then, that students are reading a great number of books and periodicals. This does not mean, however, that they are reading what is recommended. Tables 64, 65, and 66 (Chapter IV) indicate a marked difference between what students judge as significant in reading and what their teachers require. No teacher should accept unequivocally the

reading habits of students, and findings reveal that most programs must strive to establish a mediate point between student reading desires and teacher prescription. Too many books are habitually taught in our schools which do not have a significant effect on student readers. If students are to develop a "permanent" love for reading, then they must respond positively to much of what they read. Although many standard selections introduced in high school programs can generate a favorable response, as student comments in group interviews suggested, other selections surely do not do this.

Table 64 (Chapter IV) gives a list of books recommended by students in advanced twelfth grade classes to be added to the English program. These same students were asked, also, to list those books and authors especially significant in their own minds. Table 65 gives the tabulation of the lists of titles; Table 99 gives a list of the authors. From their responses, two disparate points become immediately obvious: students find significant those works which are contemporary, but many of those works required of all college preparatory students are not included or only incidentally included. Half of the first fifteen authors mentioned by advanced students are contemporary, including the first six titles, although many responded favorably to certain standard works. Since the most significant author listed by them is Shakespeare, it is not surprising that the three most common works required in college preparatory classes are Macbeth, Julius Caesar, and Hamlet (Table 62). However, the fourth and fifth most commonly required works, Silas Marner and The Scarlet Letter, do not appear on the list of significant titles; and only Hawthorne appears on the list of authors, tied for 24.5 as a result of six listings out of a possible 2,317. It is quite clear that not all great literature elicits immediate favorable

Table 99

Authors Most Often Mentioned as Significant by
Advanced Twelfth Grade Students
(n = 2,317 students)

Rank Order	Author	Number Times Mentioned	Rank Order	Author	Number Times Mentioned
1	Shakespeare, William	101	38	Eliot, T. S.	3
2	Steinbeck, John	92	39	Galsworthy, John	3
3	Hemingway, Ernest	50	40	Huxley, Aldous	3
4	Dickens, Charles	20	41	Kafka, Franz	3
5	Hardy, Thomas	18	42	Maurier, Daphne de	3
6	Faulkner, William	17	43	Rand, Ayn	3
7	Lewis, Sinclair	15	44	Russell, Bertand	3
8	Twain, Mark	15	45	Sarte, Jean Paul	3
9	Dostoievsky, Fedor	14	46	Wilder, Thornton	3
10	Buck, Pearl S.	11	47	Alcott, Louisa May	2
11	Conrad, Joseph	11	48	Balzac, Honore	2
12	Poe, Edgar Allen	11	49	Blake, William	2
13	Emerson, Ralph Waldo	10	50	Carroll, Lewis	2
14	Frost, Robert	9	51	Samuel Clemons	2
15	Salinger, J. D.	9	52	Caton, Bruce	2
16	Camus, Albert	8	53	Ferber, Edna	2
17	Costain, Thomas	8	54	Fitzgerald, F. Scott	2
18	Maugham, Somerset	8	55	Fleming, Ian	2
19	Shaw, George Bernard	8	56	Gide, Andre	2
20	Wolfe, Thomas	8	57	Goldman, Arthur	2
21	Baldwin, James	6	58	Keller, Helen	2
22	Dooley, Tom	6	59	Kipling, Rudyard	2
23	Douglas, Lloyd C.	6	60	Mill, John Stuart	2
24	Dreiser, Theodore	6	61	Milton, John	2
25	Hawthorne, Nathaniel	6	62	Packard, Vance	2
26	Joyce, James	6	63	Remarque, Erich Maria	2
27	London, Jack	6	64	Stevenson, Robert L.	2
28	O'Neil, Eugene	6	65	Stuart, Jesse	2
29	Austin, Jane	5	66	Thoreau, Henry	2
30	Roberts, Kenneth	5	67	Tennyson, Alfred Lord	2
31	Tolstoy, Leo	5	68	Warren, Robert Penn	2
32	Brontë, Emily	4	69	Wells, H. G.	2
33	Chaucer, Geoffrey	4	70	Whitman, Walt	2
34	Stone, Irving	4	71	Wilder, Thornton	2
35	Caldwell, Taylor	3	72	Wordsworth, William	2
36	Cronin, Dr. A. J.	3	73	Wouk, Herman	2
37	Cummings, e. e.	3			

reactions in readers or favorable reactions at all. But confronted with evidence that the students in the Study are above average, that they read widely and well, one must therefore question the perpetuation of titles in the standard literature canon of schools--titles which do not arouse favorable responses in any but an insignificant number of students. There are so many other great works which can be taught!

The next four most commonly required books show a somewhat higher rating. A Tale of Two Cities ranks thirty-five as a significant title, and Dickens ranks fourth as a significant author. The Return of the Native does not rank as a title, but Hardy ranks fifth as an author; nor does Huckleberry Finn appear on the list, although Mark Twain is tied with Sinclair Lewis for 7.5. The Red Badge of Courage is tied with A Tale of Two Cities for thirty-fifth, although Crane himself is not mentioned as an author.

But where are the other authors and titles? Not one of the first six titles mentioned as significant is commonly required in more than ten schools. Hence, teachers cannot ignore that the students are reading these works, nor can they be especially proud that they are reading them without benefit of sensitive guidance and direction. Although thirteen schools require The Old Man and the Sea, it seems unlikely that this book is sufficiently compelling to encourage students to rank Hemingway as the third most significant author. The Old Man and the Sea is listed only five times by title. And Steinbeck is second only to Shakespeare and Grapes of Wrath is the fourth most significant book on the list. But neither Grapes of Wrath nor any other book by Steinbeck is taught in more than ten schools in the Study.

The discrepancy is graphically represented by Table 64. Of the first eleven titles listed by the students as significant, only twenty-five

schools require any one of them for college preparatory classes, although teachers in department interviews often cited these titles as examples of modern books being taught. Perhaps this underlying contradiction is based on reluctance of schools to place such titles on formal lists of required books, because of censorship controversies. But as revealed by classroom observation, individual teachers are willing and able to teach them in an unpublicized manner. Basically, then, the schools portray themselves as being timid--and one must ask, of course, what great virtue there is in being timid here.

Table 66 (Chapter IV) lists books judged significant by tenth grade terminal students. Again, those books listed by the students high on the scale are modern in character, except Silas Marner and A Tale of Two Cities (both among the first seventeen) which could be considered traditional choices of many English departments. In department interviews, teachers cited To Kill a Mockingbird sixteen times; The Pearl, six times; The Old Man and the Sea, three times; and The Ugly American, twice. Excluded from the list are many books which are being read and fully enjoyed by the students. Nonetheless, because of the concern that teachers express about inadequacies in the programs for terminal students, it is possible with such a list to provide a sound basis for reorganizing the program in literature for terminal students.

From the same questionnaire administered to advanced twelfth grade students, investigators were able to determine the kinds of criteria students used in selecting the books. Table 100 ranks 2,286 student responses to sources of recommendations for their reading. A little surprising, on the basis of earlier studies, is the finding that students relied heavily on teacher recommendations and on book lists provided by the school and teachers. It must be remembered, of course, that findings here for the most part

Table 100

Criteria Used for Selecting Books as Reported
by Twelfth Grade Advanced Students
(n = 2,286 responses)

Criterion	Rank Order as Listed by Students					Weighted Total*
	1	2	3	4	5	
Recommendation of Teacher	630	697	436	286	65	78.83
Recommendation of Fellow Students	430	554	585	266	111	67.64
Book Lists Provided by School or Teachers	526	426	371	306	143	62.02
Browsing in Library	366	290	338	443	226	51.16
Recommendation of Parents	97	148	210	287	278	25.59
Recommendation of Public Librarian	20	45	83	127	173	9.56
Recommendation of High School Librarian	23	45	73	121	167	9.23
Other	194	82	52	53	39	15.99

*Weighted Total is the sum of 1 x 5, 2 x 4, 3 x 3, 4 x 2, and 5 x 1 divided by 100.

involve good students of good teachers in good schools and reflect, perhaps, the best possible teacher-student relationship. Still the discovery is promising that teachers can have this important effect.

The students also relied heavily on the recommendations of fellow students. The power of the peer group is manifest in recommending (and in loaning) books; this suggests the source of the books listed as significant by advanced twelfth grade students (Chapter IV, Table 65) but not taught by the department. The fact that the librarians were not considered as primary sources of recommendation is further evidence of the rejection by students of school libraries and librarians. A good librarian's influence may be indirect, of course--through the teacher, through displays, through the preparation of book lists.

The data compiled from student responses in the Study thus suggests that students not only engage in extensive personal reading, but that the nature of this reading is greatly influenced by their teachers. Although in selecting books for instructional purposes, the teachers may too seldom consider the preferences of students, particularly terminal students, their personal recommendations still have a measureable effect.

Some supplementary studies of selected schools indicated also the potential effect of classroom procedures on students' personal reading. Reported earlier in this chapter were findings indicating that when the English teacher urges students to use public or school libraries, the use of these libraries increases only slightly. More dramatic is the increase (7 percent, according to student reports) in the reading of paperbacks resulting from teacher recommendations. From descriptive material supplied by project observers, one suspects that the increase is far larger in schools which have paperback bookstores, whether organized by the librarian, business department, student council, or English department. One

comparatively new school of approximately 1,500 students reported having sold 27,000 individual paperbacks during a five month period from September to January. (There is reason to believe that the exceptionally high total was partly influenced by the paucity of its library collection, but the figure seems remarkable under any circumstances.)

The investigators can report no evidence, however, to indicate that the use of classroom libraries increases the personal reading of students, although such libraries provide for teachers an important means of guiding personal reading. Practices were compared in ten schools in which a high percentage of teachers reported classroom libraries to be essential and ten schools in which teachers reported single anthology texts to be basic. No significant differences were found in the amount of time students allot either for homework or for personal reading; and differences in reading preferences were slight and insignificant. If there was any notable difference, students in classes in which required reading was confined to an anthology expressed interest in a greater variety of reading topics, perhaps to satisfy a personal demand not satisfied by the restrictive instructional program.

In one important area, however, the investigators did discover important, albeit inconclusive, evidence of the impact of instructional emphases on personal reading. The questionnaire (Instrument No. 21) asked teachers to indicate whether they believed either the literature program or the composition program was primarily responsible for the successful preparation of outstanding students in English. Practices in schools that teachers rated high in literature were compared with practices in schools rated high in composition. Surprisingly, in schools rated high in composition, results indicated an increase of 7 or 8 percent in the amount of time students devote to homework reading and personal reading.

The finding might well serve as the basis for separate study. To the project staff members, an explanation of this result may lie in the greater emphasis on the formulation and communication of ideas in programs strong on composition. Forced to seek and evaluate ideas so that they may strengthen their own writing, students read widely. In many of the programs rated high in literature by teachers (not necessarily by project observers who frequently used different criteria to assess strength in literature programs) a rigorous program restricted often to a single series of texts or books may sometimes fail to generate interest in discovering ideas. Moreover, in some literature programs, requirements are so demanding that students have little time to pursue their own reading choices.

Summary

Wide reading of many kinds of books is characteristic of students in the schools embraced by the National Study. Library conditions in these schools, if not satisfactory compared to national standards established by the American Library Association, are considerably better than in typical American high schools. Despite these better collections, however, the school librarians seem not to be reaching students as one might hope. Students repeatedly state a preference for use of the public libraries, especially to obtain books for personal reading. Careless or highly restrictive selections of books and magazines may partially explain the dominant student preference for public library collections, as a few selective studies demonstrate. Another complex factor affecting student preferences is the relationship between size of the school book collection and student approval of the collection. Teachers are inclined, moreover, to urge use of the school library if the book collection is of respectable size, and when they do recommend the library or book use (whether paperbacks,

public or school library), the students normally respond. Perhaps surprisingly, the advanced twelfth grade students interviewed for the Study indicated that their teachers are the greatest influential factor in the choice of their books. For this reason, teachers of English need to recognize their potential influence and to consider more carefully the reading interests of young people in the planning of required literature programs. The respective findings of the Study suggest a considerable range of literary works of good quality to which students respond favorably. More concern in instructional programs that include major contemporary writers is important if able students are to receive meaningful assistance in interpreting the works of authors like Hemingway, Faulkner, and Joyce; concern in programs about using quality selections which terminal or "slow" students regard highly is important if these students are to have more and deeper literary experiences.

CHAPTER X

EVALUATION OF LEARNING AND TEACHING

So varied were procedures used by schools in the Study to evaluate student learning and teaching effectiveness that, well after visits to most schools had been completed, a special questionnaire was devised in order to provide some data on the extent of variability (Instrument No. 26). The department chairmen were asked to furnish the project with information concerning the comprehensiveness, the type, the content, and the construction of the final examinations. Table 101-104 in the following pages present the findings. Most obvious at first glance is the variety of procedures used by the schools in testing of student achievement and in evaluating effective teaching. This impression does not change upon closer examination.

A majority (59 percent) of the schools in the Study report no portion of the final examination departmental. This number explains in part why many department chairmen were unable to answer questions concerning the type and content of the examinations. In these schools, department chairmen explained that the teacher was solely responsible for making the final examination, if he chose to write one, for each of his respective classes. Almost 60 percent, then, of the schools gave evidence of lacking one way of promoting greater articulation between grade levels.¹

Moreover, the writing of final examinations for the schools which do administer departmental exams (42 percent) involves the department chairman in only eight of the schools, and grade level chairman in another six. More common is the departmental examination written by the teachers on the respective grade level, and next, that written by all the teachers. Those primarily responsible for the writing of departmental examinations should

¹See the discussion on the use of departmental examinations in the coordinating and supervising of instruction in Chapter VIII.

indeed be the teachers, but the department chairman should be involved in some manner so as to insure that the items necessary for proper articulation between grade levels be adequately tested. Part of this responsibility reflects the evaluation of the overall effectiveness of the program, not simply the performance of the student. That is, if students consistently do poorly on a test covering certain areas of English, the course itself and not the students, should be opened for revaluation. At the same time, so that each teacher may preserve the opportunity to exercise his own initiative in the classroom, part of the final examination must still remain his primary, if not his sole responsibility. And yet, it cannot be assumed that the new teachers of English, of whom there are great numbers, are adequately prepared in techniques of measurement after having completed only an introductory course in educational psychology (and this introductory only in generic terms) to allow them sole responsibility to devise an examination which will evaluate in a few hours the student achievement of a year in the study of English.

Table 101

The Extent to Which Final Examinations in English Are Departmental
(n = 99 department chairmen responding)

Portion of Examination	Number of Schools
All	11
Part	31
None	57

More agreement occurred concerning the comprehensiveness of the final examination, i.e., the extent to which the examination was planned to test all aspects of English. At least 71 percent of the schools reported that 50 percent or more of the year's work in English was reflected in the final examination (53 percent of the schools reported more than 70 percent

Table 102

The Writers of Departmental Examinations
(n = 42 relevant responses)

Rank	Writers Indicated by Schools	Number of Schools
1	Teachers on Respective Grade Levels	16
2	All Teachers	12
3	Department Chairman with Help of Grade Level Chairmen and/or Teachers of Respective Grade Levels	6
4	Grade Level Chairmen with Help of Their Teachers	6
5	Department Chairman with Standardized Examinations	2

Table 103

The Comprehensiveness and Weighting of the Final Examination

Percentage	Degree of Comprehensiveness of Final Examinations (n = 97)	Percentage of Final Grade Reflected Therein (n = 96)
100	21	0
90-99	6	0
80-89	8	0
70-79	16	2
60-69	7	0
50-59	11	0
40-49	0	1
30-39	1	17
20-29	5	41
10-19	4	14
0-9	1	1
Teacher's Decision	6	8
No Answer	8	9
Other	<u>3</u>	<u>3</u>
	97	96

comprehensiveness). Such reports are encouraging, although one wonders about the proportions assigned various components of English. That is, the literature, which seems to involve 52 percent of the student classroom activity during the year (Chapter III, Table 38), may very likely be handled by a few essay questions, whereas the section of the examination on language, which occupies only 13.5 percent of the teaching, may well account for a part of the final exam far greater in proportion to time spent learning it in the classroom.² The argument that the language portion of the final examination is in effect some type of minimum essentials test does not seem valid, especially if the student finds himself being tested for something he felt little responsibility to learn throughout the semester.

The responses concerning the type of final examination given shows a slight edge in favor of the essay examination. Forty-six of the schools reporting stated that 50 percent or more of the final examination was essay in nature, whereas only thirty-two reported that 50 percent or more was objective.

In content, literature has the distinct edge, as reported by the chairmen, supporting major findings about the teaching, but contrary to the staff's examination of selected final examinations submitted by the schools. An informal study of these samples indicated far more attention to language, especially to matters of usage, than to literature. Because of the number of department chairmen who did not feel qualified to report on their department's practices, the results can be considered only tentative. And yet, that very vagueness belies one truth too readily apparent--that evaluation of student achievement and of instructional

²For a discussion of emphases in classroom teaching, see Chapter III.

Table 104

Type of Final Examination
and Relative Percentages of Content Therein
(n = 99 departments)

No.	100	90-99	80-89	70-79	60-69	50-59	40-49	30-39	20-29	10-19	0-9
Type											
Essay	43	7	6	3	7	2	21	1	3	6	1
Objective	47	1	2	2	6	2	19	1	6	6	1
Content											
Literature	50	0	2	3	0	0	15	5	11	12	0
Reading	71	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	8	2
Composition	54	1	0	2	0	0	1	2	9	18	1
Writing Skills (Mechanics, Vocabulary)	61	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	2	14	1
Grammar	56	1	0	0	1	1	0	3	5	8	3

effectiveness emerges as one of the areas demanding immediate attention from the whole English profession. Sloppy methods of evaluation belie poor definition of goals, a situation in which articulation between grade levels often seems to be subordinated to student activity without definable purpose.

Examinations covering minimum essentials to be mastered at a particular grade level are not common. More than 70 percent of the schools responding do not require such tests. Of the seventy-six schools not testing "minimum essentials," several reported that they are considering the practice but as yet have no examination in use; others had tried such practice and discarded it.

Table 105

Frequency of Minimum Essential Examinations
(n = 97)

Minimum Essentials Examination Given

Response	Number
Yes	21
No	69
No Answer	7

Grade Levels at Which Minimum Essentials Examination Given

Grade	Number
9	5
10	12
11	11
12	6

The department chairmen, because of the nature of the task assigned them in filling out the questionnaire, took the liberty to include many explanatory notes. Some of these indicate the problems:

I don't see how this can be broken down in general.

Tenth grade--much stress on language skills, both directly and through short composition (usually). Essay questions cover literature, but are graded also for form, organization, etc.

Eleventh grade--more stress on literature and reading areas--but still some formal testing in mechanics, sentence structure, terminology, usage, etc. Essay questions graded for form as well as content--usually based on literature. Analysis of a poem or passage often given.

Twelfth grade--less emphasis on formal testing of mechanics--more stress on literature and on ability to organize and discuss questions given on literature.

Our mid-year examination is our "big" examination. We have time to correct them carefully. Our end-of-the-year exam is so limited by time.

We have an anarchic system. Presumably final exams are to be given, and presumably they are to count. Who gives them, when, and how much they count remains a mystery. Some of us are now struggling to establish a little order out of the chaos.

Each teacher in the department writes his own examination questions--not an ideal situation, perhaps, but orders are orders. I do try to discourage objective examinations, not always successfully, since I have no real authority.

New examinations are made as curriculum changes develop. For example, we are (hopefully) moving toward fusion of literature and composition courses. This requires development of new examinations.

One department chairman in two paragraphs outlined a sensible plan that is difficult to improve on and deserves full quotation:

100% of the final examination is based on work of the year; conversely, however, 100% of the year's work is not covered by the final examination. From our point of view, grammar is emphasized in a functional or structural way; composition is a continuous thing throughout the year; literature is both intensive and extensive with student choices in many areas. The final examination, therefore, reflects the student's growth in writing and thinking and the literary analysis based on the depth study which he has made as an individual choice. We do not, however, attempt to take all the works of all the authors covered during the year and have an objective test to see what percentage of the data has been memorized by the students.

It is difficult to give a factual answer to the creative attempts we use in arriving at a final grade. To begin with, the final grade is an evaluation rather than an average. We do not take the final exam, give that a value of X and the average of the year's work a value of 2X in arriving at Y as the final average. Since our grades are called evaluations, the principal expects the grades to make sense; on the other hand, a student who has caught fire should not be handicapped in a final evaluation and graded as an average student any more than a great author should be considered mediocre because half his books were mediocre. On the other hand, a student who began well, but doesn't continue his dedication to hard work and production cannot expect to be granted an evaluation of good work which has tapered off to poor work.

A study of the sample final examination in English submitted by eighty-five departments provided the project staff with another partial gauge of the actual goals of the curriculum in English in the schools visited. As the tables above suggest, however, the examinations do not reflect completely what each teacher hoped students would derive from the course. Indeed, there is little doubt that many teachers are dutifully designing multiple-choice after multiple-choice questions, not agreeing that such constitute at all the proper type of examination, but acquiescing to the tradition of the department or to the lack of sufficient time either to write a better exam or to correct a more thoughtful one.

Some interesting insights into how English is defined in many of the schools in the Study resulted from a prolonged reading of the examinations and from a frustrating and almost frustrated search for examinations which might reflect efforts by the teachers to test what department chairmen and the teachers themselves declared that they were teaching. English as language involves almost every aspect defined in Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives on both the cognitive and the emotive level, and few of the traditional multiple choice questions are designed carefully enough to test more than one of the several different levels, cognitive and emotive, at a time.³ Indeed, in an objective examination of one hundred items, if only one level were tested at a time, the test would only evaluate each level at the most twice, not a large enough sampling to ensure the evaluator of adequate knowledge or lack of same on the part of the testee. One of the problems of end-of-the-year examinations, then, is that they may seek to measure too much.

Despite reports from the department chairmen, most of the final

³ Benjamin Bloom (ed), Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1956).

examinations submitted to the Study were objective in character, and the great majority of these questions tested rote memory. Often they seemed to test information which would be of little use to the student in future years. Typical of such questions is the following:

William Shakespeare was the supreme writer of the Elizabethan Period because (a) he tells the actual story of the defeat of the Spanish Armada, (b) he writes of the conquests of English in the New World, (c) he writes of the problems of the throne and the tragedy of Elizabeth's personal life, (d) he has the ability to make real the human characters of the Elizabethan period in the actions of daily life.

Obviously, the teacher intended the students to select (d), but the only correct answer is not printed in the text: "(e) none of these." Only a student half-knowledgeable about Shakespeare and English literature could feel satisfied in selecting (d). A good student must have been perplexed and must have felt that somehow his knowledge of Shakespeare all along had been faulty. Possible answers (a), (b), and (c) reveal the teacher's poverty of imagination in designing plausible red-herring questions and could afford little discrimination in determining degrees of ignorance on the part of the student. Most students know Shakespeare was not a chronicler but a dramatist. Still, had answer (d) been an accurate statement of reasons for Shakespeare's preeminence, the whole item would be relatively worthless because of the inadequacy of the alternatives to tempt the student astray.

Still another type of objective question is inadequate because of its grammatical or stylistic flaws:

A quatrain is (a) six lines, (b) eight lines, (c) four lines, (d) two lines.

No quatrain is four lines. It is either four lines long, or has four lines, or is characteristically a four line stanza. Such a comment may seem picky, but a student who is in the same examination to be tested on

his usage of the English language ought to be given the benefit of example before he comes to the section.

Questions sometimes test items and knowledge that is irrelevant:

The name of Jason's ship was (a) Argo, (b) Argus, (c) Argos.

Perhaps questions of this sort reflect the discipline that English demands of its students, but if so, such ought to be used sparingly. Why would one, however, ask the following question:

The chief motive for reading fiction today is that it:

- (a) helps pass the time
- (b) permits the reader to examine his own life from different points of view
- (c) enables the reader to see his own problems are relatively unimportant
- (d) forces the reader to think about problems.

In effect this teacher has asked his students a question so basic to English that it would be paralleled by a question in mathematics that might read, "Why do we study geometry?" The answer to the question should become apparent through day to day work in English literature and cannot be tested in a single final examination question as if it were an item picked up from a lecture entitled "Why Literature?"

Better questions take what a student has learned and test it in different terms. That is, the following question could simply have asked "Who wrote The Man with the Hoe?" But instead, it reads:

The writer who best portrayed the hardships of farm life in the Middle West was (a) Harlin Garland, (b) William Dean Howells, (c) Edwin Markham.

Similarly, one question tests a student's practical application of metaphor in poetry rather than his ability to select the proper poetic device used in a line of poetry. The teacher instead asks the student to choose the line that best completes the figure of speech:

Better to drink life in one flaming hour
And reel across the sun,

Before oblivion.

1. Than sip pale years and cower
2. Than climb great heights and tower
3. Than eat dry crumbs and cower
4. Than seek bright lights and power

Perhaps having the students select the best line is more worthwhile than having them select the best stanza of poetry, as in the following:

- A. Red Robin saw the sun to rest,
Then gathered sleep to line his nest;
I quickened step lest evening star
Should find me from my home so far.
- B. The sun descending in the west,
The evening star does shine,
The birds are silent in their nest,
And I must seek for mine.

Although the choice of "B" is fairly clear, the teacher has no way of being sure of what influenced the student's decision as he does in the question where only one line is in doubt. In that line, "eat dry crumbs" and "sip pale years" are most effective in determining student notions of the consistency of metaphor. Any choice of the former would pretty well indicate that students have some notion of metaphor, but one not yet refined enough. The teacher, consequently, would realize wherein his failure lies and could use the information to make his teaching of figures of speech more effective the next time around. Forcing choices of this kind can be a good teaching technique; this is not necessarily synonymous, however, with good testing technique.

Multiple choice questions are worthwhile, though, and can be used effectively to evaluate what students have learned. But questions of the sort which simply test, item after item, the student's recall of what he heard in class or of what the introduction to a particular poem said seem

quite useless--they miss the point of English as a subject in which one "learns about other people." Rather, students seem to spend their time learning about the authors' lives rather than about their own. But multiple-choice questions are still useful and such questions as:

Snow-Bound is an idyll because (1) it describes a pastoral scene, (2) it states the ideals of democracy, (3) it is written in an elegant style (4) it describes legendary characters.

can be combined with multiple choice questions which test a student's response to a passage such as:

Davis [from "In the Zone"]: He bends down and reaches out his hand sort o' scared-like, like it was somethin' dang'rous he was after, an' feels round in under his duds--hidden in under his duds an' wrapped up in 'em it was--an' he brings out a black iron box! [Lines spoken] (a) with an air of sinister mystery, (b) with great fear, (c) with marked indignation, (d) with great deliberation.

Further, such questions may well be asked as:

- A. My husband likes golf better than I.
 - B. My husband likes golf better than me.
- Which might cause a serious argument?

- A. A clever dog knows it's master.
 - B. A clever dog knows its master.
- In which case does the dog have the upper paw?

- A. The butler was asked to stand by the door and call the guests names.
- B. The butler was asked to stand by the door and call the guests' names.

- A. Do not break your bread or roll in your soup.
 - B. Do not break your bread, or roll in your soup.
- Both show bad manners, but which is harder to do?

- A. Everyone I know has a secret ambition.
 - B. Everyone, I know, has a secret ambition.
- In which has the speaker pried into the private life of his friends?

or direct questions of interpretation, as in:

DUNCAN: Dismayed not this
Our captains, Macbeth and Banquo?
SERGEANT: Yes;
As sparrows eagles, or the hare the lion.
(sc. ii, Act I)

The sergeant means that:

- A. Macbeth and Banquo were greatly dismayed by the new assault, like timid sparrows or hares.
- B. The new assault dismayed Macbeth and Banquo no more than sparrows dismay eagles or the hare the lion.
- C. Macbeth and Banquo fought desperately, like sparrows against eagles or hares against lions.

In general it may be stated that the teachers observed in the schools in the Study displaying exceptional competence were teachers who demanded of their students responses to questions that rose above mere rote-learning. A test composed of 100 items all aimed at determining how well the student did listen to any lecture or how well he did read the introductory note to a poem (perhaps ignoring the poem itself, unless it were narrative, in which case the ferreting out of names and places becomes fairly important) generally reflects how and what a teacher teaches and the level of competence he expects from his students. The teacher who used the trick questions effectively demonstrated the misconceptions possible when poor or faulty punctuation is used exercised imagination that well may not be within the ken of every teacher, but he also demonstrated graphically for the student a real and immediate need for proper punctuation. (It should be stated that all of the questions asked in the examinations may not have been the result of effort by teachers in those schools submitting the examination, but someone ultimately does deserve the credit for originality.)

The examinations involving fill-in questions displayed a similar spectrum of pertinence in evaluating student understanding of what has been read, with perhaps some shift toward the darker end. Indeed, one must be quite skillful if he is to design a question which requires one word for an answer--a word that becomes obvious to the conscientious student by thinking through the content and context of the question. For instance, the question: "Hamlet is a _____," has almost innumerable answers, limited only by one's powers of imagination and percipience, but more specifically,

perhaps, by the word that occurs in a students' notebook as a result of a lecture, refreshed by means of a five-minute drill at the beginning of classes. The question, "All English is divided into two main categories, _____ and _____," will leave some real doubts in anyone's mind about the answer, although one should reasonably expect to arrive at the proper answer to a fill-in question without having attended the class in question. Again there is little difference between the flat multiple-choice questions described above and the following questions:

The greatest Shakesperian dramatist is _____.

He wrote three kinds of drama, _____, _____, and _____.

An illustration of each kind is _____, _____, and _____.

The dates of his life are _____.

The three greatest personal elegies are _____ by _____, and _____ by _____, and _____ by _____.

Is the first question a gift? Did the teacher intend to say Elizabethan instead of Shakespearian? Or is the word "Shakesperian" a confuser? Here the answer is obvious; the question is at fault.

For the most part, the fill-in answer does not seem effective for testing ideas more than rote-learned in nature. That is, even in the multiple-choice questions of a more discriminating nature the optional answers almost uniformly were composed of more than one word. At the other end of this continuum, of course, is the essay answer, a testing technique open to all of the uses and abuses that other examination questions seem capable of.

Some essay questions submitted were neutral in character and allowed the student in answering a good deal of either ingenuity or flatness. "In your own words tell the story of Beowulf" can be a good or bad question depending on the student. But questions such as

Give the historical facts of the medieval period.

Trace the growth of American literature from its beginning to the present day. Use examples to support your statement.

Literature is a reflection of the people and the time. Discuss this idea as it pertains to American literature. Be specific.

Discuss the development of the novel. In what century was the first real novel written? What conditions made this particular time ripe for such writing? How did the trend in purpose and mode change as it progressed from the eighteenth century to the nineteenth to the twentieth.

Show that you have definite knowledge of the Holy Grail.

In a discussion of approximately 150 words evaluate the movies, radio, and television as entertainment and informational media. Mention the strengths and weaknesses of each and give particular attention to their suitability for the presentation of drama as compared to the stage.

demand either too much information first hand, or a good memory of secondary sources in order that they may be answered properly. Within limits of time and memory, these are impossible--leading as they do to shoddy thinking and cliché-ridden writing.

It must be admitted that the better essay questions occurred on honors' and advanced placement examinations, and yet there is little reason that such questions might not be modified for general or college preparatory classes. Generally, they were characterized by very specific instructions with most of the materials for the answer present in the question. The only ingredient left out was the student's own thought or critical faculty. For instance, in one examination which gave the student the option of three out of five questions, one question read as follows:

"The criteria for judging the interpretation of any poem are two: (1) A correct interpretation, if the poem is a successful one, must be able to account satisfactorily for any detail of the poem.. .. It most fully explains the details of the poem without itself being contradicted by any detail; (2) If more than one interpretation satisfactorily accounts for all the details of the poem, the best is that which is most economical, i.e., which relies on the fewest assumptions not grounded in the poem itself." English Journal, September, 1962, pp. 393-394.).

Below is a short poem by Emily Dickinson. It is commonly given one or the other of two different interpretations, each based on a different assumption. The two assumptions are these:

(a) The poem is descriptive of a garden or meadow scene.

(b) The poem is descriptive of a sunset.

Using the criteria above, make as good a case as you can for an interpretation of the poem below, based upon one of the assumptions (a or b).

Where ships of purple gently toss
On seas of daffodils,
Fantastic sailors mingle,
And then--the wharf is still.

-- Emily Dickinson

Another examination for a tenth grade class was organized about a poem:

I. Analyze the following characters using the line opposite each name as a point of departure.

II. Discuss the meaning of the poem.

What happens to a dream deferred?	Paul--in <u>Paul's Case</u>
Does it dry up	
Like a raisin in the sun?	<u>Miss Brill</u>
Or fester like a sore--	
And then run?	The looney in <u>How Beautiful with Shoes</u>
Does it stink like rotten meat?	Sushka-- <u>The Little Angel</u>
On crust and sugar over--	Sponono-- <u>Tales from a Troubled Land</u>
Like a syrupy sweet?	
Maybe it just sags	
Like a heavy load	The Umfundisi in <u>Cry, the Beloved</u>
Or does it explode?	<u>Country</u>
Langston Hughes	

Such questions are more specific and differ from most essay questions in that they do not demand the encyclopedic knowledge that can reasonably be expected only of a doctoral candidate in English taking his written preliminary examinations. Some examinations are made even more difficult through additional requirements:

Think through carefully the development of American poetry as exemplified by the following authors: Longfellow, Lowell, Whitman, Dickinson, Frost, and Sandburg. Organize your thoughts and then select four of the poets and write an essay showing the contribution which each author made. Be specific.

In writing the essay make a special effort to use gerunds, infinitives, and participles. Underline these as they appear in your work. The quality of your writing is more important than the length of your essay. First make an outline and then organize

your thinking from the items in the outline. Sentence structure, grammar, punctuation, and vocabulary will all be considered in the grading.

In some ways, the attempt to test both literature and composition is commendable, but the special reference to use of gerunds, infinitives, and participles must remain somewhat suspect, even had the students just finished studying them.

The testing of composition skills for teachers has always remained a problem. Surely, questions which ask students to identify sentences with the terms simple, complex, compound, and compound-complex have minimal value in determining whether the student has a firm grasp of sentence structure. Other questions, however, were devised by teachers with a good deal of success:

Amnesia is when one loses his memory. This sentence (a) should read "... the loss of memory," (b) contains a misspelled word, (c) is completely correct, (d) is incorrectly punctuated.

Licorice is used in drugs. It hides the taste of bitter medicine. To be written in the best way, these sentences (a) should be combined into a compound sentence, (b) should be left exactly as they are, (c) should be written to contain the phrase "to hide the taste of bitter medicine," (d) should be written to contain a noun clause.

or:

Which of the following sentences is not parallel?

- A. The ant is an industrious insect, and they live in highly organized communities.
- B. They ushered us to the door and asked us to leave.

Which of the following sentences is parallel?

- A. Oscar was not only kind and generous, but also a very efficient person.
- B. Mrs. Burke told me to fill out the questionnaire and that I should leave it in the office.
- C. Following the trail is easier than cutting through the woods.
- D. Anyone can learn to paint interesting pictures if you try.

Which of the following is not a sentence?

- A. By staring at his feet while he was at the board.
- B. A fine mess, this.
- C. A hamburger with French fries, please.
- D. Good evening.

or:

The horn is sounded at the entrance of a village. It produced a general bustle among the people. They are the people who are waiting at the inn. The inn is the place where the coach stops.

Directions: Make a complex sentence. Begin with the first statement, changing the verb to a past participle. Let the second statement follow as the predicate. Reduce the third to an adjective clause modifying people and the fourth to an adjective clause modifying inn.

There was a problem. I had to lift the piece of pie out of the plate. The piece of pie was big and juicy. The plate was deep. I wanted to do this without spilling anything on the tablecloth.

Directions: Make a simple sentence, using the first statement as the principal clause. Use the infinitive to lift as a predicate nominative. Place modifiers found in the remaining statements where they belong.

He twisted the wheel. He twisted it frantically. He fed as much gasoline as possible. He hoped that the shoulder of the road was firm. Craven swung the car to the right. He swung it sharply.

Directions: Make a complex sentence. Begin with a series of introductory participial phrases. Combine the last two statements to form the principal clause.

These questions require that a student do a bit more thinking than is usually required in such questions casually grouped under "usage" as this one:

The number of the correct sentences are to be encircled.

1. His coat lay on the floor.
2. His coat was laying on the floor.
3. Lay your coat here.
4. He never lays awake.

The above questions do have their value, though. The close syntactical similarity of alternatives forces the student to think more about the sentences and about the judgments he will have to make when he does his own writing.

Testing a student's knowledge of total composition structure is an even more difficult matter. Some possible solutions taken from tests are suggested here:

Rate the following thesis statements (1-5) from best to poorest.
Comment giving reasons for your choices.

1. Although no one is perfect, Chaucer presents the parson as a perfect minister in thought, word, and deed. The parson was a true Christian and always lived by the Word of God.
2. The parson was a good man from the church, as well as wise and smart.
3. A nun is a woman who retires from the everyday world, and devotes herself to religion. In comparing the early day nun to the prioress, one finds that Madame Eglantine is a completely different kind of woman than one expects a nun to be.
4. In the "Canterbury Tales," Chaucer portrays Hubert, the friar, as a beggar friar who is interested only in his own wealth and not in being a servant of the common people, as most friars of his day were.
5. Atticus Finch is a well known and liked lawyer in a small town called Maycomb, in Northern Alabama.

or:

Below you will find a group of numbered sentences out of coherent order which makes up a unified paragraph when they are arranged in logical sequence. After reading the sentences, arrange them in order so that the revised sequence makes up the proper order. After you have decided on the correct arrangement, write the numbers in the blanks provided and answer the questions that follow:

1. The rising importance of Leeds has attracted the notice of successive governments.
2. In 1841 there were more than a hundred and fifty thousand souls.
3. They boasted loudly of their increasing wealth and of the immense sale of cloth which took place in the open air on the bridge.
4. But from the returns of the hearth-money it seems certain that the whole population of the borough, an extensive district which contains many hamlets, did not, in the reign of Charles II exceed seven thousand souls.
5. Leeds was already the chief seat of the woollen manufacturers of Yorkshire, but the elderly inhabitants could still remember the time when the first brick house then and long after called the Red House was built.
6. Oliver Cromwell had invited it to send one member to the House of Commons.

7. Charles the First had granted municipal privileges to the town.
8. Hundreds, nay thousands of pounds, has been paid down in the course of one busy day.

Questions:

1. The best logical order of arrangement is _____.
2. The sentence above which can best serve as the summary sentence of the paragraph is _____.
3. An appropriate title for the paragraph might be _____.

Yet, most of the testing of composition and language devolves into questions on usage, spelling, vocabulary, and the like. Part of the reason for these shortcomings may be that what is tested is what is taught. Surely, the evaluation of student achievement in language and composition will become adequate only when the teaching in those areas becomes more realistic.

Quite possibly the reason the advanced placement and the honors examinations seem generally better is that the advanced placement teachers tend to be generally the best in the school, or that the questions appeal more to the sophisticated observer, or that the questions seem to be asked on works that are of marked literary value.

But the advanced placement teacher quite often was not confined to simply that class of student, but quite often taught three general sections as well. Nevertheless the impression remains that if one were to be able to look at all of the examinations given by these teachers, he would find the examination for the general class more traditional in nature than the one for the honors group, even though sometimes the students cover material of comparable literary interest, albeit on a more limited scale. One argument in favor of the teacher doing the aforementioned, however, may be that the general classes are a good deal larger, thus obviating the

possibility of the student-teacher interaction progressing to the point where the thoughtful essay-type examination will be fruitful, or even practical.

The second objection is more difficult to answer. A question may well appeal to a person fond of English as a humanistic study when it requires some type of literary analysis. And yet, when the alternative offered is "Hamlet is a _____," one can appreciate the reasons for its disfavor. In some ways, the discrepancy evident in the two types of examinations results from two different conceptions of what the course is for the general and the advanced student. The honors or advanced placement student seems to be given that opportunity to experience what many specialists hope that English means when applied to literature: the development of a person's insight into how a work of literature operates and creates its effect--into how a poem means. In general, advanced students seem to be introduced to the facts of literary history only when these facts seemed relevant to that student's greater insight into just how and why the poem was written as it was, into why it operated then as it did, and now as it does. The students read and think about literature throughout the semester, and that is why when the final examination comes, the students are allowed to do the very same thing there that he has been about for nine months. Such an intense approach is encouraged, of course, by small classes. With the general, terminal, or even regular college bound student, however, the process is quite different. One wonders, however, whether or not the total reason is the larger classes; rather, the suspicion arises that some notion of what the student is and is not capable of doing enters in here. Perhaps the abilities of these students are being undersold. But these students are introduced to literature as if it were history. If the facts of the author's

life or the age are not tested, the "facts" of the story are. How the particular work of literature might operate is swallowed up in a supposed demand to cover American or British literature, to give the student that all important familiarity with the general run of great literature. One can sympathize somewhat with some of the reasoning here. A teacher assumes that a student going on into college deserves to have a nodding acquaintance with Chaucer's Prologue, and if that student is not going on to college, somehow that demand seems more and more insistent because that student might never meet the Prioress again. The argument here is not against the teacher teaching the Prologue; rather the argument is against the notion that along with the Prologue, there are two hundred other major items in English literature with which the student must become familiar before he can leave high school. The result, unfortunately, too often is a cultural literary cram course in which the student battles with a sea of names, dates, and names of works, always, somehow, feeling inadequate because he realizes that so much must be done before he leaves school. Somehow, this notion does not exist in the honors or advanced placement class. Here the student is allowed to read and digest what he has read. Surely, this latter student is more gifted, but the powers he is exerting are possessed in some degree by the slower or average student, albeit at a less potent and less developed level. It is these sensitivities that teachers should be concerned with rather than the sensitivity to names and dates, for were these names and dates all that complicated English, the old saw that every and any teacher is a teacher of English could quite easily be corroborated.

The third objection that the literary works used in the advanced placement exams might have made the questions seem more appealing because of the higher literary quality of the works is not valid. First of all,

the general classes are in fact introduced to Hamlet. They are in fact introduced to Milton, to Keats, to Tennyson, to Austen (although some of these authors may not be introduced to the slower classes, for reasons that are here accepted as quite valid). But what happens to these authors in the classroom and in the examinations is something quite different from that in the advanced classes. Yet, there would be perhaps little wrong with the teacher substituting works for the student of lesser literary value but of more appeal to the student if he were to use this material to teach how the work operates. If the insight into tone, characterization, setting, mood, diction, etc., is not present, then the worth of any work of literature being presented to the student is irrelevant.

CHAPTER XI

SPECIAL PROBLEMS AND STUDIES

A number of different topics are discussed in this chapter. Of importance in interpreting other findings in the Study or of concern only to certain specialists, the topics are neither sufficiently related to other issues to justify inclusion elsewhere, or are the subject of special studies by the staff which are reported separately. The following topics, then, are discussed in this chapter as a matter of convenience: the teaching of speech; ability grouping and the teaching of English; characteristics of outstanding teachers of English; some differences between experienced and less experienced teachers; influences on the way in which teachers teach; attitudes toward English; attitudes toward teaching aids and learning materials; and attitudes toward selected issues in the teaching of English.

The Teaching of Speech

When teachers of English in the schools of the Study were asked to rank the areas of English according to their importance to the success of the English program, only 3 percent ranked "instruction in speech and oral expression" first; 7.1 percent ranked it second; 16.3 percent ranked it third. Thus, only one-fourth of the teachers in these schools consider speech instruction important enough to be included in the first three rankings.

On the issues questionnaire (Instrument No. 19), 83.2 percent of the teachers indicated that each student should have the opportunity to give a prepared, oral presentation to his English class each semester, but only 43.8 percent of them agreed that "because of the increasing emphasis on the spoken word, more stress must be placed on the skills of speaking and

listening, even if such emphasis means devoting somewhat less time to literature and composition." More than one-third (34.6 percent) disagreed with this suggestion, and another 21.6 percent was too uncertain to commit themselves either way.

The department chairmen in interviews claim that 5 to 8 percent of class time in Grades 10, 11, and 12 represents speech and oral composition (Chapter III, Table 41). But observers reported to have seen only 4.9 percent of the content devoted to formal or informal speech activities, with the percentage declining from 7.2 percent in Grade 10 to 2.9 percent in Grade 12 (Chapter III, Tables 39 and 40). And the percentage of class time devoted to speech activities--discussion, oral presentation--is very small indeed, as the analysis of classroom procedures indicated (Chapter III).

In the departmental interviews, groups of teachers were asked what responsibility, if any, the English department assumed toward the teaching of speech or oral language? Almost immediately groups would answer "much responsibility"; yet when asked, "Where specifically do you plan for this in your program?" teachers were hard pressed to answer. The most typical answer, of course, directed attention to the elective course in public speaking offered in the majority of these schools to students during the junior or senior year (almost always as an addition rather than substitute for English). Yet an informal examination of the total number of graduating students suggested that in most schools not more than 15 to 20 percent of them could possibly have completed a course in speech.

In short, then, the evidence both formal and informal indicates that the teaching of speech is given short shrift in a majority of English programs in the Study. Not only is little time devoted consciously to speech education of students, but such time as is available (i.e., for discussion) is often poorly utilized with teachers apparently unable to

distinguish between instruction in oral language and actual participation. Just as a minority of teachers seem to understand how to plan and conduct a discussion and to educate students to participate in discussion (Chapter III), so comparatively few seem to distinguish between teaching speech and providing speech activities.

In a few schools the need for better speech education is recognized by English departments and various steps are being taken to provide such instruction. One pattern establishes a requirement of one semester of speech, often during the tenth year, as part of the four-year high school English sequence. Schools not on the semester plan will frequently pair an English teacher with a speech teacher and ask the two to exchange classes at the end of the fall semester. A somewhat different solution was encountered in another school where a speech consultant is assigned to work with three tenth-grade English teachers. On a regular schedule throughout the semester, he offers speech instruction during the regular English hour. A third approach, which is found in schools with team teaching experiments, involves a qualified speech teacher as part of each three-member or four-member team. No one of these solutions seems perfect, but each suggests a way of ensuring that every student receive some formal training in speech with a qualified specialist.

But speech, like composition, cannot be taught in a few weeks. Proficiency and understanding can be developed only over a sustained period of time. No matter what curricular plans may make it possible for each student to complete some specialized work in speech, the responsibility for continuing instruction almost certainly falls to the English teacher. Thus, it seems important for teachers of English to understand clearly the relationship of oral language to written language, the contributions of oral

language practice to the improvement of usage, the possibilities for teaching the logical uses of language through discussion, and the contributions of oral interpretation to programs in literature. Quite clearly neither the teachers in these schools, nor the programs in English themselves, have carefully considered the relationship of speech to English. Many seem unaware of the revival in rhetoric, in scholarly endeavors and the attempts to link the rhetoric of the oral tradition with that of the written tradition in new programs for the schools.¹ The lack of concern with the uses of language and the presentation of literature in modern media of communication may be related to this disassociation of oral and written language. Although the National Study itself can do little more than identify the problem, it seems important that leaders in English curriculum development concern themselves more deeply with the interrelationship of speech, language, literature, and composition, both in our schools and our culture. As Walter Ong recently said:

We live in an age which is becoming increasingly conscious of the central importance of the sequence of the media in the development of man's life world through the course of history. Man has lived successively in an oral-aural (preliterate) culture (his state everywhere for all but the most recent fraction of his time on earth), a chirographic culture, a typographical culture, and now an electronic culture. By contrast with the tendencies of the chirographic and typographic cultures to quiet voice and produce the isolated writer and reader, our present electronic culture is activating voice once more and resocializing men--of course, in quite a different way from that which prevailed in primitive oral cultures before the invention of writing and script. In a world dominated by voice on telephone, radio, and television, and in the meetings and conferences which, as much as machines themselves, form the

¹The Curriculum Study Center, University of Oregon, appears to be developing instructional materials based on rhetorical principles which apply to both speech and composition.

fabric of technological life, the written and spoken word play back and forth against one another in a dazzling variety of ways.²

Ability Grouping and the Teaching of English

Almost all the schools visited were committed to some system of differentiating among student abilities or interests. This commitment extends, at least in theory, to the English department.. Some 86 percent of the schools instituted formal grouping procedures which applied to the student profile in English classes. Of the sixteen schools that did not group students in English, two were planning to inaugurate grouping in the following year and several had special advanced sections in mathematics and/or science.

However, this common commitment seems to extend only to the concept of grouping; certainly not to the means or the purpose. Forty-five schools apparently assigned students to the same level in all subjects. The decision was usually made on the basis of a composite aptitude or achievement score. More often than not, the designation was vocational (college preparatory, commercial, distributive education, general). The placement decision in these schools was administrative--teachers were not consulted.

Thirty-eight schools fell into a second category in which students were assigned to levels according to that portion of their ability or achievement profile which was relevant to a particular subject area. Thus, students were assigned to a level in English reflecting their language skills; not a composite of language and mathematics. Again the official level designation in this category was likely to be vocational as often as ability level.

²Walter Ong, S. J., "Literature, Threat and Conquest," College English v. 27, No. 8 (May, 1966), pp. 620-622

Only eleven schools permitted their students to make a direct, final choice of placement by vocation. These schools probably diverged furthest from the concept of ability grouping, but reasonable to suppose is that the profiles of these groups are not very different from those in the schools using a composite ability or achievement score. The effects of parental pressure on counselors and the effects of counselor pressure on students probably made these two systems quite close in final group profiles.

Six schools indicated the assignment of students to English classes based on a prior record of failure in English. Some have other means for identifying and placing superior students, but for a few schools failure and not failure are the only bases for grouping. In such cases there is a single curriculum for all levels of ability and either a remedial or combined two year section for failing students.

Very few schools reported the involvement of English teachers in the decision process on student assignment. Only seven schools reported any consultation with teachers; but such consultation was often primarily concerned with admission of students to honor sections, not with special considerations which might mediate the assignment of students with special problems. Only two schools reported systems in which slow students had to meet certain criteria of amenability to special instruction or tutorials in a formal English section. It may be that more schools consulted teachers prior to student assignment than actually mentioned this procedure to interviewers. In any event, there would still seem to be a reflection of an administrative attitude.

It is apparent that while different methods of grouping have been widely accepted in the better high schools in the country, the effect, if not the intent, has been to provide a special learning climate only for the

above average to gifted student whose sights are on a college education. The non-college bound student with special problems in ability, motivation, or divergent values is not receiving the same intensive attention. In the judgment of the observers only a very few schools offered an effective program for terminal students. (See, for example, the discussion of this point in Chapter III.) Even in the area of reading deficiency which has received so much attention in recent years, there seems to have been little progress beyond the formal designation of a remedial reading section and the acquisition of pacing devices and canned reading programs (Chapter VII). While most of the schools indicate ability grouping, their published curricula do not indicate differential treatment in English. Few English programs showed evidence of careful analysis of the needs and capacities of the various sub-categories of terminal students. Only four schools indicated the existence of an experimental program to develop methods, materials, or emphases for terminal students.

The vocational nomenclature typical of these systems of grouping is perhaps symptomatic of the problem faced by these schools (unless the divisions are a political device) in establishing a correct balance between the classic general education and the skills and information needed for a set of vocational categories. This concept of division seems to contradict the use of aptitude and achievement batteries. On the other hand, if the rationale for grouping in these schools does reflect the use of ability tests, then a more rational approach to the problem of division is necessary--an approach which recognizes specific deficiencies in the capacity to learn by standard methods and materials. Although this more rational concept is certainly not new, it does not seem to have filtered down to high school English programs. There seems to be little evidence today of concern with

the types of ability groups that need to be formed in the high school--there is little more than token recognition of the last twenty years of research on mental abilities and grouping. The principal who said, "We don't know what we're doing here," said more than he knew.

Characteristics of Outstanding Teachers of English

After each visit project observers indicated on a separate summary sheet those teachers in the school who should be distinguished for excellence--or specifically, for their classroom teaching and impact on the total program. These teachers were grouped according to their answers on the questionnaire for individual English teachers (Instrument No. 21) and a set of comparisons was drawn between these 130 outstanding teachers and the total group of 1,371 teachers. This discussion reports the result of that comparison and indicates some of the characteristics of outstanding teachers of English.

The 130 outstanding teachers selected by observers were described in the following ways: they had more experience; they spent more time teaching in the classroom; they spent more time reading and writing; they were more interested in specific authors and individual works rather than in the history of ideas; they were more involved in professionally related activities, but spent less time listening to music and learning how to teach language, composition, and reading than their colleagues in the general group.

The outstanding teachers showed an average of 14.8 years of experience compared with 12.0 years for the total group of teachers. No significant differences were discovered in number of students taught each day nor in time spent preparing for classes or in conferring with students. There

was, however, a difference in time spent on correcting papers. Some 41.6 percent of the outstanding teachers spent thirteen or more hours per week grading and correcting papers in contrast with 31.14 percent of the total group of teachers. It also seems that the outstanding teachers spent more time advising student activities. As many as 61.05 percent of them advised student activities for one or more hours per week in contrast with 43.8 percent of the total group. Of the outstanding teachers, 38.5 percent spent three or more hours per month on "Other professionally related activities," whereas 30 percent of the total group spent more than three hours per month. This difference is reflected in the number of teachers who hold offices in professional organizations and participate in professional programs at conventions. Some 71.6 percent of the outstanding teachers spent more than four hours per week reading in contrast with 55.8 percent of the total group. At the same time, however, 54.1 of the total group spent four or more hours per week listening to music in contrast with 45.4 percent of the outstanding teachers. Oddly, it seems that the outstanding teachers spent more time at part-time employment than the total group; 25.4 percent of the outstanding teachers were employed part-time in contrast with 15.7 percent of the total group.

The summer found the outstanding teachers more involved professionally than the total group. Whereas 17.7 percent of the outstanding teachers taught summer school and 16.2 percent spent this time reading, reflecting, and planning, only 12.5 and 10.2 percent respectively of the total group were engaged in these activities. Also, 10.2 percent of the total group was involved in employment unrelated to teaching in contrast with 6.9 percent of the outstanding teachers; and 11.7 percent of the total group was involved in "Relaxing with personal or family recreation" in contrast with 3.8 percent of the outstanding teachers.

The outstanding group of teachers seemed to be slightly better prepared in terms of formal education, since 77.9 percent had undergraduate majors in English compared with 71.8 percent of the total teacher group. Of the outstanding teachers, 69.2 percent had earned a degree since the beginning of full time teaching, whereas only 52 percent of the total group had earned a degree. After entering full time teaching, 49.2 percent of the outstanding teachers had earned an MA, MS, or M.Ed. degree; only 36 percent of the total teacher group had done such. (Of the highly rated group, 36.1 percent had earned an MA or MS, and 13.1 percent had earned the M.Ed.; only 29 percent of the total teachers had earned the MA or MS and 6.56 percent had earned the M.Ed.)

In the semester hours earned in various areas related to English after beginning teaching, 47.7 percent of the outstanding teachers had taken more than twelve hours in literature in contrast with 30 percent of the total group. Of the outstanding teachers 48.5 and 34.6 percent had taken one course or more in language and in composition in contrast with 34.1 and 24.8 percent of the total group. Also, after beginning teaching, 43.1 percent of the outstanding teachers had taken at least one methods course in the teaching of English, and only 31.6 percent of the others had taken one.

The total group indicated a greater interest in introductory courses or practically-oriented courses, like literary surveys, literature for adolescents, traditional grammar, the teaching of reading, and practical methods in the teaching of English. On the other hand, the outstanding teachers were more interested in the advanced courses that might be included under literary genre courses, close studies of single authors or works, and advanced studies in curriculum and research in the teaching of English--perhaps because of their more extensive background in course work. The last

group of courses, those in curriculum and research, might perhaps be accounted for by the substantial number of department chairmen included in the group of 130 teachers. However, this group was interested in literary surveys as well. Of the total group, 65 percent considered literary surveys of at least some interest or value, if not of great interest or value; whereas only 56.2 percent of the outstanding teachers were similarly affected. However, 82.3 percent of these teachers thought that courses in literary genre would be of some or great interest or value in sharp contrast with 63.2 percent of the total group. Of the outstanding group of teachers, 57.7 percent felt that there would be great interest in close study of single authors or single works, whereas only 48.1 percent of the total group felt such interest. But 36.2 percent of the total group found a course in the teaching of reading of great interest and value, whereas only 30 percent of the special group felt this way. Also 71.6 and 72.1 percent of the total group thought a course in practical methods in the teaching of English and in literature for adolescents would be of at least some interest and value, whereas only 56.9 percent and 64.6 of the outstanding teachers felt this way. The outstanding teachers, however, were more interested in a course in advanced studies in curriculum and research in the teaching of English; 43.8 percent of them found such a course of great interest in value in contrast with 35.4 percent of the total group. At the other end of the scale, 32.1 percent of the total group found a course in traditional grammar of no interest or value, whereas 47.7 percent of the special teachers felt the same.

As one might suspect, the outstanding teachers were more fortunate in receiving grants. Out of 130 teachers, a total of 63 grants had been received: 12 John Hay Fellowships, 8 Commission on English Institute stipends, 16 locally sponsored grants, and 10 university fellowships or scholarships.

Of the total group of 1,371, only 407 grants had been received (half of which, of course, were received by the outstanding teachers): 23 John Hay Fellowships, 34 Commission on English Institute stipends, 16 summer grants, 124 locally sponsored grants, and 74 scholarships or fellowships from universities.

As mentioned before, the 130 outstanding teachers consistently belonged to more professional organizations. Some 69.2 percent belonged to the NCTE and 60 percent belonged to state English associations, whereas only 52.3 and 44.6 percent of the total group belonged; the 130 outstanding teachers also held 131 offices, whereas the 1,371 held only 872 offices; and the 130 teachers made 153 appearances on programs at conventions, whereas the 1,371 made only 1,008 appearances. The outstanding teachers also read more books and journals; 90 percent regularly skimmed through the English Journal and 43.1 percent looked through College English in contrast with 83.9 and 31 percent of the total group. Of the outstanding teachers, 16.2 percent read or skimmed the CCC bulletin in contrast with 9.8 percent of the total group. Moreover, the outstanding teachers had an average of 466.7 books in their personal libraries, whereas the total group had only 380.3 books. And they also read an average of 3.3 books per month other than those they taught in class, whereas the total group read 3.2 books per month. Perhaps the extra time in reading was devoted to the three journals and to other items not strictly considered books. The outstanding teachers also had a slight edge in writing creatively, if only for their own pleasure. A percentage of 20 said they did so frequently, whereas 13.3 percent of the total teachers reported the same.

When asked to rate the importance of certain aids and materials in the teaching of English, 58.3 percent of the total group found literature anthologies either very important or essential in contrast with 51.5 percent

of the outstanding teachers. However, 41.5 percent of the outstanding teachers found class sets of novels, plays, and biographies essential in contrast to 30.7 of the total group. A percentage of 17.7 of the outstanding teachers, but only 10.7 percent of the total group, found workbook drills as detrimental in the classroom. In the same way, 51.9 percent of the total group found language textbooks either very important or essential in contrast with 44.6 percent of the outstanding teachers, although neither group differed in their feelings about a handbook on language for student reference. However, 21.5 percent of the outstanding teachers found a record player and a library of recordings in the classroom essential, whereas only 14.3 and 16.8 percent of the total group revealed the same conviction. Of the total group, 53 percent found classroom sets of dictionaries essential in contrast with 42.3 percent of the outstanding teachers. Of the total group of teachers, 35.7 percent considered lay readers not very important or detrimental in the classroom, whereas even more in the outstanding group, 46.2 percent, viewed lay readers as not very important or detrimental. However 34.7 percent of the total group considered a teaching manual very important or essential in the classroom, whereas only 13.8 percent of the outstanding teachers felt this way (which is a reflection perhaps, of the greater experience of the outstanding teachers).

Concerning the extent to which teachers were allowed to choose materials, such as literature books, texts, or records, for use in English classrooms, the outstanding teachers indicated they had more freedom of choice than the total group of teachers.

With respect to approaches to the teaching of literature, the outstanding teachers stressed the study of ideas in single works of literature. Some 79.2 percent considered such study "of great importance" in contrast with 68.3 percent of the total group. Similarly, 65.4 percent of the special

teachers found comprehensive analytic study of individual selections of great importance in contrast to 53.7 percent of the total group. On the other hand, 61.5 percent of the total group found biographical study of authors of some or great importance, whereas only 47.7 percent of the special teachers thought so.

The outstanding teachers are indeed outstanding. Certainly, their profile was determined somewhat by the fact that they were singled out by the observers, but the consistency of the picture portrayed in this brief review is gratifying. These teachers are readers and more interested in literature as a form of art and communication than they are in it as a form of content to be mastered by the students. Rather than take a course in the teaching of reading, they seem rather to prefer to take a course in intensive study of individual authors and works--surely this is where the understanding of reading begins, and where the most profitable attempts to continue the education of most juniors and seniors in high school should begin. The difference seems to be in the process and the thing produced, between theory and fact.

Some Differences Between Experienced and Less Experienced Teachers of English

What difference does teaching experience make in the perceptions and practices of teachers of English? To obtain some clues to changes which come with experience, the investigators divided responses of the 1,331 teachers on the teacher questionnaire (Instrument No. 21) into the first and fourth quartiles on number of years of teaching experience. Teachers in the first quartile had taught three or fewer years; those in the fourth quartile had taught for twenty years or more. Table 116 presents some of the more interesting findings.

A comparison of the results indicated that the more experienced teachers spent slightly more time correcting papers (modal times were 9-12 hours weekly compared with 5-8 hours for inexperienced teachers) and slightly more time conferring with students (30 percent spent 5-8 hours weekly compared with 19 percent of the inexperienced teachers).

Younger teachers, for understandable reasons, devoted more time to college course work. Some 28.2 percent of the less experienced teachers spent one or more hours per week taking college courses in contrast with 13.6 percent of the experienced teachers. In the summer, 29.6 percent of the younger teachers enrolled in summer school in contrast with 8.9 percent of the older teachers. The experienced teachers claimed to spend more time reading, reflecting, and planning than did their younger colleagues (16.6 percent to 9.4 percent). And the experienced teachers indicated less enthusiasm about the value of college courses in general.

The two groups, however, did not differ significantly in undergraduate preparation, except that a slightly larger number of experienced teachers indicated that they possessed double majors.

Young teachers tend to regard literature as being more important to the school program (38.7 percent to 33.5 percent), whereas the experienced teachers favored composition (35.9 percent to 32.8 percent). Far more young teachers looked with favor on the use of paperbacks (21.7 percent to 8 percent) and on the use of lay readers to assist in paper annotation (64.1 percent to 48.4 percent).

Perhaps the most important distinction between the two groups was in their professional involvement. The young teachers were less likely to belong to professional associations and less likely to attend professional meetings.

Table 106

Some Points of Comparison Involving
Experienced and Less Experienced Teachers

Dimension of Comparison	Experienced Teacher (20 or more years teaching) (n = 341)	Less Experienced Teacher (3 years teaching or less) (n = 337)
Modal number of hours spent correcting compositions weekly	9-12 hours	5-8 hours
Percent spending 1-3 hours weekly or more in college course	13.6 percent	28.2 percent
Percent typically enrolling in summer session	8.9 percent	29.6 percent
Percent beginning teaching career with		
less than bachelor's degree	16.9 percent	2.3 percent
bachelor's degree	65.9 percent	67.4 percent
15-30 hours or more beyond bachelor's degree	17.2 percent	29.6 percent
Percent <u>never</u> attending		
a local English meeting	10.1 percent	46.3 percent
a state English meeting	19.3 percent	67.2 percent
a national English meeting	56.4 percent	89.7 percent
Percent reporting membership in		
NCTE	58.8 percent	49.9 percent
State English Association	63.8 percent	28.7 percent
Regional English Association	32.9 percent	10.0 percent
Local English Association	54.0 percent	24.3 percent
Percent regularly reading the <u>English Journal</u>	90.2 percent	80.9 percent
Percent ranking following component of English as most important:		
Literature	33.5 percent	38.7 percent
Composition	35.9 percent	32.8 percent
Language	7.1 percent	7.3 percent
Reading	15.4 percent	12.9 percent
Speech	3.3 percent	3.8 percent
Percent recommending to students the following sources for books:		
School library	73.9 percent	59.8 percent
Paperbacks	8.0 percent	21.7 percent
Public library	11.9 percent	14.7 percent

Influences on the Way in Which Teachers Teach

In individual interviews, 424 teachers were asked: "As you look back on your preparation and the experience that you have had professionally since that time, what individuals or experiences would you say have had the most impact in determining the way in which you teach today?" The responses were recorded by the project staff members, later analyzed, and are reported in Table 107.

Table 107

Individuals and Experiences Mentioned by Teachers
as Having Had the Greatest Impact on Their Teaching
(n = 424 teachers)

Rank	Individual or Influence	Number Mentioning
1	College Professor of English Education	244
2	College Professor of English	165
3	Critic Teacher during Student Teaching	118
4	Department Head, Principal, or Fellow Teacher	109
5	Some Particular Personal Experience	67
6	A High School Teacher That I Had	61
7	A Course Completed	38
8	Reading That I Have Done	31
9	Some Individual Friend or Acquaintance, including Family	28
10	Teachers in General	23
11	Conference, Institute, Workshop	20
12	Don't Know	12
13	Own High School Experience	10
14	An Elementary Teacher That I Had	6

The wording of the question, with its emphasis on the way teachers teach, may have directed attention to individual instructors and away from books. This was suggested when teachers indicated that their reading did not have an important or direct influence on how they taught. Although conferences and institutes might have been important as a direct influence, the interviews occurred in 1964 and 1965, prior to the creation of national NDEA institutes in English and comparatively few teachers had attended any institutes of this kind (Chapter II, Table 21). The Bread Loaf summer conferences and institutes sponsored on the East Coast by the ESSO Corporation were among those most frequently mentioned.

Most teachers experienced difficulty in answering the question. Few did so without considerable reflection, and almost all mentioned three or four different influences. How valid such responses may be is far from certain, but the discovery that experienced and successful English teachers believe they have been influenced to a greater degree by professors of English education, professors of English, critic teachers, and department chairmen suggests the importance of strengthening preservice preparation.

The striking result of the findings, then, points to the greater influence of individuals compared with other influences. Teachers apparently teach as they were taught, but it seems less the method that they emulate than the vigor of the personality. At least, this seemed to show in the essence of their responses. The usual antipathy toward education courses was occasionally reflected in such comments of teachers as: "Professional preparation courses were helpful but not education courses." Despite this rather widespread attitude expressed by teachers and the fact that not more than 15 percent of the present course work of the average teacher is in education, much less methods, more than half of the individuals named as "most influential" were either professors of English education or teachers

of methods courses: Paul Diederich, Irwin C. Poley, Agnella Gunn, Floyd Rinker, Vincent McGuire, Lou LaBrant, Dwight Burton, G. R. Carlsen, Louis Zahner, Edwin Sauer, Lucia Mirrelees, Dora V. Smith, Fred Wolcott, J. Paul Leonard, and many others were mentioned. Clearly, the teachers distinguished instructors in the teaching of English (methods, curriculum in English, supervised teaching) from instructors in other education courses.

Another group of individuals named frequently and ranking second were professors of English: John Gerber, John McGalliard, Austin Warren, Arthur Carr, Hardin Craig, Aubrey Williams, Helen C. White, G. B. Harrison, James Sledd, Kemp Malone, C. C. Fries, and S. I. Hayakawa were among those mentioned. More than a few were teachers of preparatory courses in Shakespeare, suggesting that exciting content and instruction may be linked in the memory of those interviewed. Occasionally a professor of education or a professor in another field (music, history) was mentioned.

A third group of individuals exercising a tremendous influence on the beginning teacher were supervising or critic teachers. Although individuals wrote down the names of these individuals less frequently, the responses indicated that the critic teacher can be highly influential.

Department chairmen and supervisors comprised the fourth most frequently mentioned group. Supervisors who visit schools and classrooms regularly and confer with teachers, as Helen Hanlon once did in Detroit and as Katherine Greaney now does in Maryland, are highly regarded. Energetic department chairmen or principals, who visit, confer, and are available to help, are also highly regarded. Among those whose names were mentioned with some frequency: Alan Glatthorn, Margaret Casey, Ruth Herin, and Jean Reynolds.

Attitudes Toward English

What does any professional staff see as particularly significant in English? Of special importance to any program is the image of "English," as conceived by the school principal and the teachers of English. In many ways, the points of view expressed in the 116 schools were similar, although they revealed important differences in the conception of English as a content subject and as a service subject.

Table 108 tabulates in four categories the varied responses of building principals to the question: "What do you believe is the basic function of English?" The difficulty of analyzing the results of such an open question is apparent in the breakdown in the table. By far the most frequent single response was the word "communication," but obviously the word can have many implications unless placed in a specific context. To observers, principals usually seemed ready to supply a context sufficient to indicate whether the term referred primarily to the so called "skills" of language (reading, writing, speaking, listening) or whether it was used to imply the broader, humanistic areas of literary appreciation, critical thinking, and general cultural education. Because some principals mentioned more than one function, all responses are included.

Clearly the high school principals in these 116 schools see the most important function of English to be the preparation of students in the use of the skills of language. This is a curious finding in light of the emphasis on literature (52.2 percent of class time) in classes. However, in subsequent interview questions, observers ascertained that there was considerable confusion in principals' attitudes toward the subject. Many actually criticized the amorphous quality of the subject, which several felt needed definition and balance. Such principals maintained that the objectives of English are neither adequately codified nor understood, and

that first priority in improving programs should go to clarifying objectives in some fashion agreeable both to teachers and to students and parents. These principals who argued that existing programs lacked balance also argued that one aspect of English, be it usage or literary history, predominates. (The study of literature does predominate, as this investigation makes clear, but in calling for balance, principals seem to imply that the various components of English should receive equal emphasis, an approach which teachers in these schools overwhelmingly reject.)

Table 108

The Function of English Identified by School Principals
(n = 116 principals)

Function	Number Mentioning	Percentage of Total Responses
Communication--distinguished as a verbal <u>skill</u>	76	42.7
A <u>Service</u> to other disciplines	<u>30</u>	<u>16.9</u>
	106	59.6
General Education (literary or cultural heritage, common experience, moral values)	39	21.9
A Source of Ideas; process of thinking, etc.	<u>33</u>	<u>18.5</u>
	72	40.4

The sometimes quiet revolution in the study of language and the impact of modern linguistic research concerned a number of principals. Not all such administrators were certain why such a change was appropriate, and more than a few merely suspected that because "linguistics" was new, their school like others probably should "climb aboard the bandwagon," as they had done previously in physics and mathematics, and introduce the subject. Some principals, of course, advanced more honorable reasons for curriculum change, and several, suggesting for example that the schools needed a grammar

more consistent with the language of speech, indicated some familiarity with contemporary discussion in professional journals if not with research in language itself.

To introduce a new grammar implies reeducating teachers of English, employing consultants, establishing institutes, and holding inservice meetings. Thus, such activities concerned one group of principals, perhaps influenced by the summer institutes of the College Entrance Examination Board held in 1962, the spring institutes on language held during 1963 and 1964 by the National Council of Teachers of English, and the plans for the national NDEA institute program.

A smaller group of principals, perhaps those with knowledge or experience in the John Hay Fellows Program, felt that the new direction of the English curriculum was pointed toward greater humanistic emphasis. Such administrators saw ties between English and history, music, art, and probably philosophy. Essentially they regarded English the basis of general cultural education. However, in most of the schools of the Study, humanities courses (See Chapter XIV) tended to be offered in addition to regular English, not in lieu of it.

The study of principals' attitudes toward the subject of English thus reveals diversity, uncertainty, and a split between those concerned with teaching of skills and those concerned with teaching of culture. Since it is therefore interesting to compare the reactions of teachers, Table 109 presents an analysis of 438 interview responses to the question: "What do you consider to be the most important function of English?" For most other responses, the teachers' willingness to explain their feelings enabled the interviewers to formulate more precise notions about their attitudes or or beliefs. Almost all of the teachers were thrown off balance by the

wording or ambiguous tone of the question, which evoked a facile, pragmatic response to a very complex, even philosophical issue. Interestingly, most teachers chose to react from a pragmatic stance, as revealed in a predominant number of their "communication" responses.

Table 109

The Function of English Identified by Teachers
(n = 438 teachers)

Rank	Category of Response	Number of Responses
1	Communication (use of skill to convey ideas)	161
2	Thinking and Ideas	84
3	Literature (love of reading)	63
4	Composition: Effective Expression of Written Ideas	55
5	Personal Development of the Child	48
6	General Education	36
7	Service Course	35
8	Values: Moral, Social, Spiritual	26
9	Language: Grammar, Usage	13
10	Speaking and Listening	12
11	Varied Responses	14

Mentioned by teachers only half as frequently as "communication" was "thinking and ideas," which suggested that English was a type of "forum for ideas," a place where the tools for thinking and the processes of thinking were taught formally or informally. In the large group (or departmental) interviews, when asked what was their responsibility for the teaching of straight thinking or logic, most teachers replied that they "taught it all the time," whenever they taught composition, reading, or literature. The emphasis in their replies seemed always on "idea," rather than on "straight"

or "logical"; that is, the teachers were hopeful that the student would begin to grapple with ever larger ideas and issues rather than any tangible framework of logic or rhetoric. Too often, the ways in which the teaching of literature is conducted, or the ways in which composition and literature learning are tested, seem to militate against the validity of the response. The teachers' responses suggested a greater interest in allowing students to think critically about literature and life and to express those thoughts effectively than observers would have suspected. However, when put to the classroom test, it is much easier for teachers to ask students when Shakespeare was born than what Macbeth thought.

Literature and composition were also mentioned by teachers as crucial, a pairing in emphasis which is underlined throughout the Study whenever teachers are asked to consider the importance of various aspects of English. In view of the comparatively slight emphasis on composition observed in many classrooms, its high rating here is surprising. Often the teaching of literature seemed to mean either the teaching of reading or instilling in the student the desire to read for the rest of his life--but the teaching of composition meant just one thing--the learning of the skills necessary for effective written expression of ideas.

The distinction between "personal development of the child" and "values: spiritual, moral, and social" is not too easily drawn. However, it does exist and seems most readily observed in the fact that the personal development of the child most often corresponded to the child's seeing something that he did not see before in life--the teacher opening a world that did not exist before--a new awareness of things other than the self and, then, of things of the self. The eighth category seems more overtly didactic from the teacher's point of view, for they are interested in a change in the moral outlook on life that is more restricted than the total personal development of the child.

The "general education" category incorporates the notion of English as a course in which the many diverse cultural necessities are to be found--in effect, a humanities course in its broadest sense. The function "service course" incorporates the notion that in the English course are to be learned the skills necessary to make the student proficient in other areas and, in some instances, simply to prepare him for the College Board Examinations.

Some will find it difficult to believe that the study of language was mentioned so few times, but the reason must be that, more often than not, teachers identify language with grammar. They showed little inclination to think of language as a means of communication, or as an expression unique to a culture, or as a "subject" related intrinsically to composition or literature, or for that matter to life.

The interviews with teachers, then, although more pointed than discussions with school principals, indicated the same general differences in attitude toward the subject of English. One group of teachers concerned themselves with skill development, or at least the use of skill in communicating ideas effectively. Another large group concerned themselves almost entirely with the process of thinking and the acquisition of ideas. A third major group concerned themselves with literature, values, and the importance of a general cultural education. The proportions of teachers supporting different views seems not too unlike the proportions of principals. Where the teachers did differ, however, were in the number of individuals who would mention only one aspect of English as the "major function," such as the teaching of speech or the teaching of composition. Also, a much larger percentage of teachers than principals expressed concern about the general personal development of the child, a goal which seemed to take precedence in their minds over any particular subject concern.

To some extent, English is all of these things, of course, even though observers found little evidence that certain of these ideas affected classroom teaching. Indeed, the most startling aspect of these findings is the discrepancy between goals identified by teachers and principals and emphases reported by observers of classroom teaching. Perhaps the principals are right in suggesting that a clarification of purpose is needed.

Attitudes toward Selected Teaching Aids and Learning Materials

With few exceptions, the teachers in these schools believe in use of a wide variety of teaching aids and learning materials. Some 1,331 responses to questions on the teacher questionnaire (Instrument No. 21) indicate whether they believe each of twenty-six separate aids and materials to be essential, of some importance, unimportant, or even detrimental. The results in Table 110 demonstrate the wide diversity of opinion and the fact that only a few aids generate broad support and enthusiasm. Of these the duplicating machine, which some project observers felt already was overused, seems to meet greater approval than any other. The other top rated aids, those listed as essential or very important, are presented in Table 111. Not surprisingly, the list differs mostly in ranking of items which teachers at department meetings suggested that they would most like to obtain with additional funds (Chapter III, Table 54). Indeed, both lists indicate the importance of books, the cruciality of recordings, and the need for clerical help and duplication services to enable teachers to prepare their own materials.

Certain aids seem far less important than others. Table 112 presents those considered of least value in the teaching of English. It is not surprising, of course, to find radio down-rated; in these days of television, even radio plays seem dated. But the rejection of teaching machines and

Table 110

Teacher Assessment of
Selected Teaching Aids and Learning Materials
(n = 1,331 teachers)

Percent of Teachers Rating

Teaching Aid or Material	Essential	Very Important	Of Some Importance	Not Very Important	Detrimental to Good Teaching	No Response
a. Anthology	25.5	32.5	28.7	8.9	2.9	1.5
b. Class sets of books	30.7	43.4	19.1	5.5	0.4	0.9
c. Classroom library	10.4	31.0	38.2	19.0	0.2	1.2
d. Sets of 7-8	5.3	29.2	43.6	19.2	0.5	2.2
e. Materials for slow readers	31.4	40.1	21.0	5.3	0.3	1.9
f. Books for mature readers	16.8	37.9	30.0	12.9	1.1	98.7
g. Workbooks w/drills	5.3	12.4	33.5	37.6	10.2	1.0
h. Language textbook	24.0	27.9	33.9	11.8	0.7	1.7
i. Handbook on language	25.8	37.8	29.0	6.0	0.1	1.3
j. Phonograph	14.4	34.3	39.8	10.2	0.2	1.1
k. Recordings	16.7	37.6	36.9	7.7	0.2	0.9
l. Filmstrip projector	10.1	22.9	44.2	20.9	0.7	1.2
m. Motion picture	14.5	28.9	40.2	14.9	0.5	1.0
n. Teaching machine	5.1	8.1	26.2	52.6	6.7	1.3
o. Tape recorder	6.7	19.9	47.9	23.1	0.5	1.9
p. Television	1.4	5.8	35.8	50.2	4.2	2.6
q. Radio	1.1	3.5	28.1	60.4	4.5	2.4
r. Table of periodicals	6.1	23.3	49.6	19.2	0.5	1.3
s. Class set of dictionaries	53.4	33.1	9.7	2.8	0.1	0.9
t. Movable furniture	34.9	30.1	21.3	10.4	2.1	0.8
u. Lay readers	8.6	19.8	30.3	26.0	10.1	1.2
v. Clerical service	21.1	36.7	28.0	10.0	0.8	3.4
w. Duplicating machine	66.0	24.5	6.0	2.1	0.1	1.3
x. Overhead projector	9.3	25.3	44.8	17.1	0.3	3.2
y. Opaque projector	7.5	23.3	46.1	19.6	0.8	2.7
z. Teaching manual	12.6	21.6	36.6	24.1	3.1	2.0

Table 111

Rank Order of Ten Aids and Materials
Rated of Most Value in Teaching English
(n = 1,331 teachers)

Rank	Aid or Material	Percent Rating as Essential or Very Important
1	Duplicating Machine	90.5
2	Class Sets of Dictionaries	86.5
3	Class Sets of Books	74.1
4	Books for Slow Learners	72.7
5	Moveable Furniture	65.0
6	Handbook on Language	51.9
7	Anthology	58.0
8	Clerical Services	57.8
9	Books for Mature Readers	54.7
10	Recordings	54.3

Table 112

Rank Order of Ten Aids and Materials
Rated of Least Value in Teaching English
(n = 1,331 teachers)

Rank	Aid or Material	Percent Rating as Detrimental
1	Radio	64.0
2	Teaching Machine	59.0
3	Television	54.0
4	Workbooks w/drills	47.0
5	Lay Readers	36.0
6	Overhead Projector	27.0
7	Tape Recorder	15.0
8	Filmstrip Projector	21.0
9	Opaque Projector	20.0
10	Display Table of Periodicals	19.0

television by 59 and 54 percent of the teachers perhaps suggests one reason why observers found these aids seldom used in the classrooms visited. Unimportant as they may be for teaching English, the severity of the negative ratings here seems out of proportion to the actual use in the classroom. One cannot help wondering how many of the teachers have had any experience on which to base their judgments.

That they have had more than sufficient experience with workbook drills is apparent, and the rejection of such materials by almost half the teachers (47 percent) only corroborates interview data reported in Chapter VI.

Lay readers elicit negative responses from 36 percent of the teachers, but 28 percent consider such readers as either essential or very important. The division of opinion on the use of readers was discussed in Chapter VI. Although tape recorders, filmstrip projectors, opaque projectors, and display tables of periodicals rank as the last four items on the list, a comparatively small percentage of teachers rated them unimportant and in every case a substantially larger percentage actually considered them to be either essential or very important.

In view of the diversity of attitudes toward various teaching aids and learning materials, the discovery is especially interesting that almost two-thirds of the teachers in the Study are relatively free to select their own classroom materials (Table 113), choosing freely or from a wide list of books and learning aids. The primary restriction to the use of a diversity of material seems to be the limited availability of funds to support adequate purchases. Most teachers seem to want more books--whether class sets, group sets, or classroom libraries--than they currently have available. Many would make greater use of machines such as overhead projectors, record

players, motion picture projectors, and tape recorders if these machines were acquired in sufficient quantity to be immediately available in classrooms and departments. For this reason, the conferences of English chairmen called by project directors, but reported in a separate publication, recommended in detail the books, aids, and equipment needed both in modern English classrooms and in departmental English centers.³

Table 113

Degree of Freedom in Selecting Classroom Materials
(n = 1,331 teachers)

Degree of Freedom	Percent of Teachers Responding
Complete Freedom	13.2
Approval of Department Head Required	38.6
Selection from a Wide List	11.4
Subject to "Approval" List subject to yearly change	18.6
No Choice	16.4
No Response	<u>1.8</u>
	100.0

³Robert J. Lacampagne, op. cit., Appendix.

Attitudes Toward Selected Issues in the Teaching of English

To obtain some indication of the reactions of teachers toward selected issues and problems in the teaching of English, an issues questionnaire (Instrument No. 19) was administered to 102 departmental faculties immediately before the departmental interview. The issues, identified by the project staff but approved by the advisory committee for the National Study, consisted of 30 statements with which teachers were asked to indicate (without discussion) their agreement, disagreement, or uncertainty. Some 1,481 usable issues questionnaires were obtained and grouped in Table 114 according to topics and percentage of teachers responding. Their responses were also analyzed according to their years of experience; 697 (47 percent) had 5 or fewer years of experience; 435 (29 percent) had from 6 to 15 years of experience; and 349 (24 percent) had 16 or more years of experience.

Reactions to the first cluster of statements dealing with separate or integrated courses in literature, composition, and language indicate that an overwhelming majority of teachers support an integrated program. A slight majority (53.5 percent) see language as requiring an organized plan, rather than merely introduced in relation to the writing and usage of students. Curiously, 61 percent of the teachers with greatest experience agreed, in contrast with 45.6 percent of those with least experience.

Reactions to the two issues dealing with the immediacy of impact of literature are difficult to interpret. Statement 4 on the long range effects of worthwhile selections to which students do not readily respond was troublesome for many teachers. Some 38.8 percent agreed; 29.6 percent disagreed; and 31.6 percent were uncertain. Experience again may be an aid, for 47.3 percent of the experienced teachers agreed, whereas only 35.8 percent of the inexperienced teachers agreed. Can the answers to this

Table 114

Attitudes of Teachers Toward Selected Issues
in the Teaching of English
(n = 1,481 teachers)

Issues Presented for Reaction	Percentage of Teachers Indicating		
	Agreement	Disagreement	Uncertainty
I. Literature, Language, Composition as integrated or separate courses.			
6. Literature, composition and language are most effectively taught as separate courses.	9.0	82.3	8.7
23. Literature, composition and language are best taught separately within a single English course.	12.8	75.0	12.2
1. Language content should be taught as an integral part of English according to an organized plan rather than introduced as the need occurs in relation to writing and usage of students.	53.5	32.2	14.3
II. Immediacy of impact of literature.			
4. Though the experience of reading a worthwhile piece of literature may mean little to a student at the moment, he will generally be able to recall the selection and appreciate it later on.	38.8	29.6	31.6
13. The proper choice of high school literature should be that which can be comprehended and appreciated at the moment by the majority of the class.	61.5	24.5	14.0
III. Composition.			
A. Teacher's responsibility.			
7. The high school English teacher's most important responsibility is to teach composition.	14.5	70.3	15.2
11. Because of the increasing emphasis on the spoken word, more stress must be placed on the skills of speaking and listening, even if this means devoting somewhat less time to literature or written composition.	43.8	34.6	21.6

III. Composition (continued)

Agreement Disagreement Uncertainty

B. Frequency of student writing
vs. other.

20. Given the choice, it is more important that each student write something each week than that each paper be evaluated closely.	51.7	34.2	14.1
28. Frequency of student writing is more important than less frequent, but longer and more comprehensive writing assignments.	73.4	11.5	15.1
17. There is more value in assigning four themes a month to be graded specifically for technical errors than in requiring two themes a month to be graded comprehensively for diction, grammar, sentence structure, content, logic, and development.	15.9	69.8	14.3

C. Models.

18. Unless students read frequently and widely, they will not develop their writing potential adequately.	82.8	5.7	11.5
21. Frequent exposure to many examples of good writing accompanied by some writing practice will do more to improve student writing than will constant practice with infrequent exposure to good stylistic models.	75.0	9.8	15.2

D. Kinds of evaluation of papers.

1) 20. Given the choice, it is more important that each student write something each week than that each paper be evaluated closely.	51.7	34.2	14.1
10. No composition or theme should be returned to a student which has not been rigorously examined for technical errors.	24.6	64.9	11.3

III. Composition (continued)

Agreement Disagreement Uncertainty

17.	There is more value in assigning four themes a month to be graded specifically for technical errors than in requiring two themes a month to be graded comprehensively for diction, grammar, sentence structure, content, logic, and development.	15.9	69.8	14.3
2) 30.	If they are to develop their writing skills adequately, students should be required to revise each paper thoroughly, and teachers must check these revisions to ensure understanding and improvement.	66.8	14.9	18.3
3) 27.	Marking papers with a double grade (for mechanics and content) is of more benefit to students than assigning a single, comprehensive grade.	67.2	16.1	16.7
E. Writing topics.				
8.	Virtually all student writing should grow out of the literature read and discussed by the class.	29.0	59.7	11.3
12.	Students learn more about writing if they write about their personal experiences rather than about literary subjects.	28.7	41.8	29.5
F. Term paper.				
22.	English teachers should see to it that students write at least one term paper (or long research paper) before going to college.	71.7	13.2	15.1
G. Short story writing and poetry.				
5.	Students will become better writers if they are allowed frequent opportunities to express themselves imaginatively by writing stories and poems rather than if they are restricted to expository forms.	55.9	25.7	18.4
24.	Practically all students in high school should occasionally be expected to write stories and poems.	54.6	29.9	15.5

IV. Literature.

Agreement Disagreement Uncertainty

A. Miscellaneous

- | | | | |
|---|------|------|------|
| 11. Because of the increasing emphasis on the spoken word, more stress must be placed on the skills of speaking and listening, even if this means devoting somewhat less time to literature or written composition. | 43.8 | 34.6 | 21.6 |
| 2. Students must be given freedom to select literary works, even if such freedom means they occasionally choose inferior works at certain stages of their development. | 61.1 | 25.8 | 13.1 |

B. Close textual analysis.

- | | | | |
|--|------|------|------|
| 1) 25. A critical and comprehensive analysis of a poem will do more to destroy its beauty than it will to develop literary appreciation among students. | 20.1 | 61.1 | 18.8 |
| 9. It is necessary to teach some literature (primarily poems and short stories) through close textual analysis to help the student develop an appreciation of good literature. | 83.5 | 8.7 | 7.8 |
| 2) 26. Students need to study the history of literature so that they may better understand the current trends in literature. | 60.7 | 18.8 | 20.5 |

V. Speech.

- | | | | |
|---|------|------|------|
| 11. Because of the increasing emphasis on the spoken word, more stress must be placed on the skills of speaking and listening, even if this means devoting somewhat less time to literature or written composition. | 43.8 | 34.6 | 21.6 |
| 29. At least once during each semester, every student should have the opportunity to give a prepared, oral presentation to his English class. | 83.2 | 6.4 | 10.4 |

VI. Language.		Agreement	Disagreement	Uncertainty
A.	16. Instruction about the structure of language is necessary to one's learning to use the language proficiently.	65.9	18.1	16.0
B.	15. Because language patterns vary constantly according to use, it is unrealistic to insist on a single standard of usage among students.	42.1	42.6	15.3
VII. Miscellaneous.				
A.	3. Novels and plays adapted to suit the abilities of slower students are essential to a good English program because they afford these students an acquaintance with the best in literature.	74.4	16.1	9.5
B.	14. Memorization of words and their meanings is of considerable value in extending the range of a student's useful vocabulary.	30.3	43.7	26.0
C.	19. A literature program in which selections are grouped around topics or themes offers the best approach to developing permanent appreciation.	41.1	24.0	34.9

question offer any hint of the desire of older teachers to teach the classics year after year whether or not any visible response is detected in the student body? Two-thirds of the teachers (63.3 percent), however, agreed with statement 13 on the need for selecting literary works to which students can respond, a statement which seems partially in conflict with statement 4. [N.B. At this point it might be useful to insert the following facts of "agreeability" of teachers. Those teachers with the most experience had the highest percentage of agreement in fourteen statements, whereas they had the highest percentage of disagreement in only six statements. Those teachers with experience from six to fifteen years were the most disagreeing group, having the highest percentage of disagreement in fifteen statements.]

Reactions to issues concerning teachers' responsibility in composition indicate clearly that the teachers in the Study do not consider the high school teacher's most important responsibility to be the teaching of composition. As many as 70.3 percent said "No"; only 14.5 percent said "Yes." Statement 11 called for more stress to be placed on speaking and listening. Some 43.8 percent of the teachers agreed that more stress should be placed on the skills of speaking and listening, even if this means devoting somewhat less time to literature or written composition. But almost one-third disagreed with the statement (34.6 percent) and 21.6 percent were not certain. Would more of the teachers have agreed had the conditional clause implying the theft of time from literature and composition been omitted? Staff observers repeatedly discovered that the teachers in the Study admit that they have many, perhaps too many responsibilities, and that they are not about to increase them without good and sufficient reason.

Teachers generally feel that frequency of student writing is more important than less frequent, but more comprehensive writing assignments. This is the most important reaction to the issues dealing with frequency of writing. Some 73.4 percent of the teachers agreed with statement 28 and only 11.5 percent disagreed. (Again, the more experienced teachers were in greater agreement--78.2 percent--whereas only 67.4 percent of the less experienced teachers agreed.) But if frequency of writing is opposed to less frequent writing, but closer evaluation as in statement 20, the importance of frequency to teachers diminishes. Only 51.7 percent of the teachers agreed with statement 20, whereas 34.2 percent disagreed, indicating a reluctance on the part of one-third of the teachers to return a paper to their students which is not closely evaluated. But as observers noted in reports summarized in Chapter V, more than one-third of the teachers do return papers which are not closely evaluated. Are those teachers who

disagreed saying that their teaching of composition is impaired because of, perhaps, a departmental policy which requires a theme a week or theme every two weeks, a policy prohibiting the close evaluation of papers because of class load? That is, are they saying that were students to write less frequently and they to grade more closely, the composition instruction would be more effective? Do these teachers really intend to say that guidance in writing is more important at all times than the mere fact of writing? Part of the answer may exist in the response to statement 17. Here, frequency of writing with superficial grading is of less value than less frequent writing with comprehensive grading. As many as 69.8 of the teachers disagreed with statement 17, whereas only 15.9 percent agreed. In effect, the question is the same as statement 20, but the suggestion of an emphasis on the mechanical aspects of writing apparently kept 35.8 percent of the teachers who agreed with statement 20 from agreeing with statement 17.

Teachers were generally in agreement with statements 18 and 21, which emphasize the use of good models; 82.8 percent agreed with 18 and 75.0 percent agreed with 21. In neither case did disagreement exceed 10 percent. The agreement with both statements seems to imply an integrated approach to the teaching of literature and composition despite the fact that such approaches were only rarely seen in the classroom.

Closely related to these reactions are those dealing with the kinds of evaluation (statements 20, 10, and 17). Generally, the teachers (64.9 percent) disagreed with statement 10, which suggested that papers never be returned to students without rigorous correction. When reactions to statement 10 are compared with those to statement 17 (which had only 15.9 percent agreement), it becomes somewhat evident that the teachers in these

schools are much less concerned with the "technicalia" of writing than they are with the overall effectiveness of the student's effort.

Teachers generally agreed that each student should be required to revise each paper thoroughly and that these revisions should be checked. Some 66.8 percent agreed with statement 30; 14.9 percent disagreed. Here the newer teachers are more in agreement than the older teachers (69.5 percent to 58.7 percent). And interestingly enough, the more experienced teachers are not really in disagreement, but they are uncertain--24.4 percent of them. Again, it must be noted that teachers' principles here are somewhat at variance with their practices, for observers studying the annotations and many students' themes found little in the way of thorough revision, although quite often observers reviewed papers in which revision was commensurate with grading for mechanical errors.

Two-thirds of the teachers (67.2 percent) agreed with statement 27 which proposed a double grade for composition; 16.1 percent disagreed. No other question in the group was designed as a foil for this statement, but it is possible that the dissenting 16 percent objected to the partial emphasis on mechanics implied on the question. That is, these teachers may have assumed that the mechanics grade would automatically account for 50 percent of the total grade, and they may have thus rebelled at the thought of raising mechanics in writing to so important a place.

A majority of the teachers (59.7 percent) objected to limiting composition topics to those related to literature, as statement 8 proposes. But the teachers were less certain about the place of personal experience in composition, as 28.7 agreed, 41.8 disagreed, and 29.5 percent were uncertain. The statements tend to represent opposing positions, and if analyzed in this way, it appears that an equal percentage of teachers (30 percent) agree with each statement. But fewer teachers are willing to disagree with statement 12 than they are to disagree with statement 8 (41.8 percent to

59.7 percent. The number uncertain about statement 12 thus becomes important, for it seems that the lack of willingness to disagree with the statement throws some support to its validity. The less experienced teachers seem the most uncertain about the statement, for almost one-third (33.0 percent) of them admitted neither to agree or disagree.

An overwhelming percentage of teachers (71.7 percent) supports the proposal in statement 22 to assign a term paper. The less experienced teachers were more in agreement (76 percent) than the experienced teachers (65.4 percent).

Two statements, 5 and 24, focus on the writing of poetry and short stories, and although they are not the same, the responses seem to suggest that they are. Some 55.9 percent agreed and 25.7 disagreed with statement 5; while at the same time, 54.6 percent agreed and 29.9 disagreed with statement 24. The inherent difference in the two statements is marked by the words "frequent opportunities" in the first and "occasionally" in the second. Teachers seem, however, to be saying that the writing of stories and poems is important whether it occurs only occasionally or frequently. Although there was no significant experience-group difference in response to statement 5, there was a significant difference in statement 24. Some 60.9 percent of the less experienced teachers agreed with the statement, with only 23.4 percent disagreeing, whereas only 42.4 percent of the most experienced teachers agreed while almost the same number, 37.8 percent disagreed. Do the experienced teachers tend not to agree with the idea that "practically all the students" should be subjected to imaginative writing "occasionally," whereas they would tend to agree that a student who is a good writer will become a better writer if he is given frequent opportunity to write stories and poems? Can we say that teachers do not generally disagree that students should be allowed or encouraged to write short stories and poems at one time or another?

The general (or miscellaneous) statements concerned some issues in the teaching of literature. The problems of interpreting statement 11 have already been mentioned; but with statement 2, 61.1 percent of the teachers agreed and 25.8 percent disagreed. Since observers reported that students in most schools are given little opportunity to select the readings used in class, the teacher may have in mind student selection of books for individual reading.

Teachers were in strong agreement with statement 9 that some literature should be taught through close textual analysis; 83.5 percent of the teachers agreed, and such agreement was spread through all experience levels. But disagreement with statement 25 on the inhibiting effect of analytical study of a poem is not proportionately as high as agreement with statement 9. Only 61.1 percent of the teachers agreed with the statement in contrast with 20.1 percent who agreed. As one might expect, the less experienced teachers showed a higher percentage of disagreement, 64.6 percent as opposed to 50.4 percent of the more experienced teachers. Can it be said, then, that teachers strongly agree that some literature should be taught through close textual analysis, but that some are either uncertain or definitely feel that close textual analysis, even as it helps a student appreciate a poem better, may destroy the beauty of a poem or short story?

Statement 26, stressing historical study, elicited approval from 60.7 percent of the teachers; some 18.8 percent disagreed, but 20.5 percent were uncertain. Perhaps the more experienced teachers simply disagree with the suggestion that the history of literature should be used for the teaching of modern literature, and they logically did not agree because of a reluctance to teach modern literature. At the same time, the opinions of less experienced teachers may reflect their recent college curriculums in

which literature is studied vigorously in terms of many approaches, since they were also in greater agreement with the teaching of literature through close textual analysis.

With respect to speech, teachers support occasional speech activities but are less certain of continuing the emphasis in this area. More than four-fifths (83.2 percent) agree that every student should have the opportunity to give a prepared, oral presentation to his English class. But in relation to statement 11, calling for emphasis on oral English at the expense of written, only 43.8 percent agreed, 34.6 percent disagreed, and 21.6 percent were uncertain. The reaction seems to suggest an attitude that not a great deal more time should be placed on formal speech in the English classroom than is already the case.

There seems to be some general approval that instruction on the structure of language is necessary to one's becoming proficient in the use of the language. Some 65.9 percent of the teachers agreed with this statement (number 16) and only 18.1 percent disagreed. Those least in agreement were teachers with sixteen or more years' experience, as only 58.5 percent agreed; those most in agreement were teachers with six to fifteen years' experience, as 72.2 percent agreed. Those teachers not in agreement are perhaps the same teachers who disagreed with statement 1 that language should be taught as an integral part of English according to an organized plan rather than introduced as the need occurs in relation to writing and usage of students. Can we assume, then, that only two-thirds of the teachers in the Study feel that students should be instructed in the structure of language?

No statement of the thirty received such disparate responses as statement 15, calling for multiple standards of usage. Some 42.1 percent of the teachers agreed, and 42.6 percent of the teachers disagreed. The

teachers with most experience were the most agreeable, as 47 percent agreed, and the teachers with the least experience were the least agreeable, as 38 percent disagreed. Disagreement was highest among the teachers with six to fifteen years experience (46 percent). Can one say from the differences in experience levels that the more experienced teachers tend to be less insistent on a single standard of usage, and that, when this problem is compared with the problem of grading papers for mechanical accuracy, teachers with more experience are generally less demanding of their students for grammatical accuracy and related matters. The tenor of the response to the statement seems to describe the almost perfect split in opinion of the teachers in the Study (and in the profession) to the question of a single standard of usage in the classroom. Would those teachers who disagree insist on the same usage on language in both the advanced placement class and in the slowest terminal class?

Several miscellaneous issues were grouped together under Section III. There was general agreement (74.4 percent) to statement 3, on "adapting" works for slow students. Only 16.1 percent of the teachers disagreed with the statement. Perhaps this response supports Section II in emphasizing the fact that the impact of literature must be immediate if the student is to profit the most from the experience.

Vocabulary study that emphasizes the memorization of words is not in favor among the teachers; only 30.3 percent of the teachers agreed with statement 14, whereas 43.7 percent disagreed, and another 26 percent were uncertain. If memorizing words and their definitions seems to be of little value to so many teachers, are we justified in believing that these teachers would prefer that vocabulary study not be a part of the English curriculum?

There is slight agreement with statement 19 (41.1 percent), but the most striking fact is that 34.9 percent of the teachers were uncertain about grouping literary selections on a thematic or topical basis. Only 24 percent of the teachers disagreed that the thematic approach to literature is the best approach to developing permanent appreciation. Less experienced teachers were more in agreement than more experienced teachers, 46.6 to 38.7 percent, but this disparity is not overly great, even though a corresponding 11 percent spread is present in the disagreement column. The newer teachers may here again display their eagerness to expose their students to a variety of approaches to English literature.

The findings of the issues questionnaire were useful to the project staff in interpreting points of view of teachers in the Study and in unveiling the areas of greatest confusion and disagreement. Certainly the discovery that these teachers disagree about the importance of maintaining a single standard of English usage in the classroom is merely a reflection of disagreement in the total profession. Similarly, the uncertainty of teachers concerning such matters as use of thematic topics, impact of close textual analysis, creative writing and writing from personal experience, speech and oral English, and teaching of vocabulary only reflect the findings of observers reported elsewhere in the Study. Perhaps the most significant finding is the discovery of such a broad basis of agreement on key issues in the teaching of English. On only seven of the thirty issues did a majority of teachers in these schools have no firm opinion; and in most cases the dominant opinions were held by two-thirds or three-quarters of the teachers responding.

CHAPTER XII

LARGE-CITY SCHOOLS

During the last decade, and probably longer ago than that, the particular school problems of large-city school systems have been dramatized by such issues as integration policies, increasing school costs, and the retention of superintendents. The struggle of the cities to maintain or improve their position in the educational milieu, a position perhaps forward-looking even thirty years ago, has been an uneven and unsuccessful struggle. Whereas teachers were formerly employed in large cities only after serving a kind of apprenticeship in smaller towns or suburbs, no such regimen is possible today. Indeed, the migration would seem to be in the other direction, with many teachers beginning their careers in larger school districts and then moving to more affluent, more highly-favored suburban systems for a variety of reasons. Heavy work loads, inadequate building facilities, the restraints of bureaucratic control are frustrating features of many large-city systems, and the slightly larger salary scale in these systems cannot attract and hold the most professionally promising young teachers.

There are, of course, certain compensations that accrue to the teacher who wants to stay in the city. By and large, he has fewer after school obligations, such as sponsoring student organizations or attending parent-teacher meetings; more student services are available, presumably relieving him of some individual demands and problems. Some teachers seem to prefer working within a more highly-structured system that tends to define not only what to teach but how to teach it. They are willing to sacrifice personal or departmental autonomy for the comfort of prescribed routines and

uniform curriculums. By the same token, the teacher who must punch a daily time clock is likely to feel few professional obligations after leaving the school for the day. And many (probably most) of the English teachers within the large-city systems are themselves products of those systems. Their homes, their friends, their own cultural and recreational resources are there, and they are therefore reluctant to fly to unknown situations.

What exactly is a "large-city" system? And how does its size and multiplicity affect the program of English? The first question can be answered arbitrarily; the second is the main subject of this chapter.

For purposes of analysis and discussion, cities have been grouped according to population on the assumption that the size of the city will have some relationship to number of high schools (and to some extent size) along with complexity of educational organization. Schools in the original sample of 116 appeared to divide roughly into two such groups--those with populations between 200,000 and 500,000 and those of about 500,000 and over. Only two cities represented in the second group had a population of a million or more.¹ Because there seemed disproportionately few cities of this magnitude, the project staff obtained a separate grant from the United States Office of Education to allow for additional visits to schools in this category. To be sure, the total sample is itself extremely small, and no particular reason exists for believing that those selected are

¹Two additional schools from very large cities were also selected in the preliminary screening consistent with the original criteria, but withdrew (along with a very few others) because of internal concerns or problems. This fact lends credence to the notion that the small number of large-city high schools in the first sample is not so much a reflection of the general quality of the English programs in these cities as it is an indication that urban systems are less concerned with national contests or "outside" teacher organizations than with their own internal needs or problems.

altogether representative of large-city high schools. As a point of fact, the city superintendent, or his designate, selected those in the supplementary group, the only criterion from the project office being that the school should be comprehensive and comprised of students representing a broad spectrum of cultural and intellectual backgrounds. But the requests did indicate the interest of the project staff in visiting particularly impressive English programs. More often than not, in the opinion of the project's observers, the city's better comprehensive schools were chosen.

Characteristics of the Schools

There is great variety to be found among the thirty-one schools comprising the group which has been labeled large-city high schools. They are of different sizes; they are found in every corner of the country; they receive vastly different financial support (from less than \$300 per pupil to more than \$700); they send from 15 percent to 90 percent of their graduates to college; their "dropout quotient" varies from 60 percent to almost nil. Observers report the quality of English instruction in these schools ranges from among the highest to the very lowest of all the schools in the entire Study.

Comparing the group as a composite unit and certain variables with the remainder of the schools in the Study offers some important generalizations. For one thing, English teachers in large cities have a greater work load determined by numbers of students and classes. Almost invariably, city schools reported that teachers carried five classes and the majority have additional assignments such as study halls, "locker assignment," or corridor duty. Observers were impressed by the large classes in these schools compared to their counterparts in smaller communities, the average reported figure being 145 students per teacher against a 130 average for all schools in the Study.

Perhaps the most revealing statistic, reflecting one of the most serious problems faced by city school systems, is the proportionately large number of dropouts from schools in this group. Whereas the average dropout figure in all of the cooperating high schools is 9 percent, the urban schools account for some 33 percent of the total. It should be remembered that figures represent only a quotient, useful for comparative purposes only.² If all school dropouts from Grades 7-12 were counted, the proportions could very likely double--leaving the unhappy conjecture that many large-city high schools graduate a mere one-third to one-half of the number of students originally enrolled at Grade 7.

Table 115 reveals that the highest dropout incidence rate occurs, not in the very largest cities, but in those comprising the middle group. However, the very small sample used and the probability that those in the "A" group are not entirely representative of their cities make any generalization highly dubious. Another factor bearing on the relationship of population to dropouts in the largest cities is the open enrollment policy in New York City, where two of the seven schools are located. Still another variable is that special schools in some cities tend to draw off the potential dropout as well as the academically talented student. In general, however, if the figures in Table 115 were to be adjusted for any of these variables, they would have to be raised rather than lowered.

There is certainly no simple reason for the heavy rate of student attrition in these high schools. Migrant families, split-apart families

² Firm statistics revealing high school drop outs are difficult to secure and, for several reasons, are not completely reliable. The quotient used for comparative purposes here is a simple arithmetic proportion:

$$\frac{\text{No. graduating students}}{\text{No. 10th grade students}} \times 100\% = \text{D.O.Q.}$$

Table 115

Percent of Dropouts in Large-City Schools
Grouped According to City Population
(n = 31 schools)

	Graduating Students	Tenth Grade Students	Percentage of D.O.Q.
Group A (pop. 1 million or over) (n = 7 schools)	4,594	6,075	24.5
Group B (pop. 500,000-1 million) (n = 12 schools)	5,255	8,983	41.4
Group C (pop. 200,000-500,000) (n = 12 schools)	5,921	8,630	30.3
Combined total (31 schools)	15,770	23,688	33.5

recurring patterns of failure in earlier grades, and the pressures of economic privation all contribute to the lack of incentive for school success. Although it is beyond the bounds of this Study to investigate all these "external" factors, it is also clear that the schools involved in this Study were generally not those most affected by these pressures. Indeed, most of them were selected either by the criteria outlined in Chapter I according to their excellent reputations or they were chosen by the school district authorities who undoubtedly selected those that would reflect a favorable image of the district. In no way, then, could this group of schools be said to represent the "slum schools" of the country, those which would be most subject to negative forces of external origin acting from without. Special studies by Conant, the NCTE Task Force on Language Programs for the Disadvantaged, and others have shown that the programs of such schools must be viewed from perspectives different from those available to the National Study of High School English Programs. Nevertheless, the project staff feels that group analysis of the city schools is close to the point in view of the different conditions (usually

limiting, but sometimes liberating) that obtain in the urban districts compared to those in other areas.

In any business or political structure both multiplicity and size generate kinds of organization that promote uniformity and standardization, and the large-city school district is no exception to this generalization. These factors affect the English programs and the English classroom in numerous ways; such factors as the unvarying routines of the school day and the sizeable (though equitable) number of pupils in each class have already been mentioned. There are also city-wide curriculums; large-scale testing programs; district textbook committees; reading lists; examinations; building policies; personnel practices and many other manifestations that emanate from the principle that multiplicity acquires order and economy through many details of organization. At its best, this overall design for order can lead to economies that are measurable in dollars saved or in professional time conserved. It can also help to keep the most inept teachers out of the classroom. But at its worst, the envelope of organized efficiency generates inflexible systemization; and if counterforces are not present, the end products are likely to be routinized teachers and unmotivated students, and dropouts from both ranks. Among all thirty-one city schools in the Study, the typical one replaces 16.5 percent of its staff each year. Statistically, however, it is difficult to characterize the sometimes subtle but often distinctive differences between teaching in a large urban district and teaching in a smaller town or educationally autonomous suburb. More revealing than the questionnaire items to the project staff were the more subjective comments by teachers and administrators and the reports of observers themselves. Some of the effects of the high degree of organization to be found in large-city high schools were noted by observers:

One is inevitably surprised and somewhat overwhelmed by the many onerous tokens of organization and regimentation: the time clocks which teachers must punch daily (in and out!), the up and down stairs, the uninspiring sameness of the classrooms, the uniform REGULATIONS posted about the buildings.

. . . . the program itself tends to be conservative and ordinary, necessarily reflecting the overall philosophy of the central office. Large classes, excessive and burdensome clerical duties impede the entire program.

Despite very good things, I felt the school should be better, I saw superb teachers not relating to one another, a plethora of administrative regulations smothering the department, a school which could have ranked with the best suburban schools visited lacking fire and excitement.

As noted above, the teaching loads in large-city high schools are appreciably higher than those found in any other group of schools with the exception of the Catholic high schools. In only two of the thirty-one was the standard load less than five classes per day and the large majority of teachers had additional assignments for study hall, lockers, etc., along with the ubiquitous homeroom responsibility. Besides these obligations, teachers in the cities felt inundated by the weight of clerical duties that preempted their time and energy. It was not uncommon for these schools to be operating from 25 to 50 percent over capacity, which resulted in teachers "floating" from room to room, even floor to floor, to take advantage of usable classroom space. In one school, for example, teachers spent their preparation periods sitting at chair desks located in dimly lighted halls because no other seating space was available. Nor was it unusual to find the city schools running "split sessions" or "double sessions" to accommodate the large number of students. Still other schools, overtaxed by numbers, depended on an available "annex" or "temporary" frame classroom units, some of which had been constructed twenty years earlier. Of course, the same problem of overcrowding exists to some degree in many of the country's schools from the affluent suburban areas to the most stable villages and towns. But the important consideration here is how these conditions affect

the teaching of English and how the administrators and teachers are able to cope with such logistical problems and still carry on a viable educational program.

On the basis of individual and group interviews, there is no doubt that English teachers in urban schools feel the pressure of too many classes and too many students. Teachers queried about their practices in teaching composition, for example, responded that they would like to give more emphasis to this component but that the great numbers of students simply denied them this opportunity. Occasions for individual student conferences were, they felt, non-existent. Time and again, whether they responded as a department or as individuals, they complained of not having enough time to teach properly--that is, time to meet all of the demands of the day, and to prepare meaningful lessons and correct written assignments. Almost as common was an insistence that there were too many interruptions, or out-and-out obstacles, to teaching in the way of students summoned from their rooms; assemblies held at the expense of classes; intrusions by other departments; or announcements over the public address system of no consequence to the class at hand. Although the same kinds of intrusions are often to be found in other kinds of schools, perhaps even to the same extent, the interesting point here is that teachers in large-city schools are frequently more resentful and certainly more outspoken about them.

Individually, many city teachers decry the sometimes desperate physical state of the building or the classroom assigned them and quite justifiably according to the observers. Likewise, but with even more emphasis, those teachers who were forced to "float" from room to room revealed that the practice not only alienated them but that it directly interfered with the business of teaching--with their having blackboards, bulletin boards, and

other equipment at hand to use when the proper pedagogical moment arises.³

Rather surprisingly, most English teachers did not resent the system of split sessions or even double sessions as a temporary solution to the most serious problems of overcrowding. Indeed, although there are obvious administrative difficulties with offering more than a single session, this expedient is a wise alternative to crowding too many students and too many teachers within a single block of time. Faced with the choice a few years ago, the administrators of the new Rincon High School in Tucson, Arizona, proceeded to plan a split session and hired additional teachers to do the job. Rather than use every available space of their building in which to hold classes, they converted one classroom into an English department office, or more descriptively, a department center, manned by a full time secretary and provided with hundreds of books, files, teachers' desks and various other resources, materials and equipment that a teacher might appropriately use. Generally speaking, all English classrooms are located in the same wing within easy range of the center. Of course, the classrooms are used constantly by several teachers in the course of a day, but what is distinctive is that the rooms also contain appropriate libraries and equipment. Thus there is a special room for English 11 or English 12 since, in the thinking of the department, these are discrete courses demanding their own periodicals and books. As in other affairs, the solution to one problem has had a positive and pervasive effect on the whole; carefully

³In the course of the Study, observers have seen English classes conducted in drafting rooms, biology rooms, home economics centers, auditoriums and cafeterias to mention some of the more noteworthy problems of the "floating" practice. It is not that the project staff is unsympathetic with the problem of the overcrowded school; however, the point should be clear that English, like other disciplines, requires its own resources in the way of books and materials. See also Chapter VIII, "Departmental Organization."

equipped English centers and specialized classrooms appear to be a "promising" practice that can influence schools in many parts of the country, whether they are burgeoning with students or not.

Despite the prevailing large numbers and often frenetic activity existent in most large-city high schools, many English teachers express discontent because of the lack of professional communication, one teacher may have unconsciously characterized what is missing in many urban schools by saying: "During lunch we (English teachers) are able to talk." They often feel isolated from their peers and removed from the administrative hierarchy that makes curricula or budgetary decisions affecting their teaching. Although it is next to impossible to measure with any certainty teacher morale, observers indicated that there was a palpable difference evident in many city schools. A number of teachers interviewed expressed their frustration with and their distrust of "the downtown office." Many were also critical of the books and materials provided them and felt that the written curriculum simply did not fit the classes that they taught. They were likewise often critical of the tracking or grouping of students in the English program, although they were (almost without exception) in favor of grouping. The fault, they suggested, was not in the policy but in the practice; and if students were only put on the right track with the right teachers, all would be well. Similarly, departments were prone to indicate that "reading" or "speech" should be taught by specialists as should those students labeled as "disadvantaged." Perhaps it is to be expected in such systems where a great emphasis is placed on complex administrative organization that solutions to problems are looked for in further specialization. However, it is not surprising that those who teach within highly organized systems should expect the wheels to turn so that they, in turn, might teach with less restraint and more felicity. That

superorganization appears to leave many teachers dissatisfied casts a serious doubt on the efficiency of the complex educational structures in large districts.

Several observer comments on the subject of the "overall intellectual atmosphere" are revealing of what was found in the city high schools:

. . . . it had the "city school atmosphere"--one part education, one part social, and four parts system and impersonality.

No student was observed carrying a library book or a paperback.

The whole atmosphere here suggests systemization and prescription. This is not to say that there are not very able teachers here, but that the mold is somewhat limited--their professionalism is rather narrow too--to their own organizations.

Without the restraints imposed by the System, the overcrowding, and the heavy workload of teachers, I think the atmosphere would be higher yet.

The issue of academic freedom is a long and wide one, certainly too complex to be dealt with in its many facets in this report. Here the one dimension that can be analyzed is the apparent freedom that teachers (and students) feel they have in choosing classroom materials or library books. But even here an analysis is difficult inasmuch as one's view of freedom is a relative and highly individual matter. For example, in responding to a question of the teacher questionnaire relating to the degree of freedom given them for choosing books, texts, records, etc., (Instrument No. 21, total results reported in Table 113), teachers who have taught in the same department for many years have indicated the entire range, from "complete freedom" to "no choice." Several responded in interviews that they had "considerable freedom" and then stated that this meant they could choose from among certain approved selections in an anthology. To the observers, such an attitude must support the assertion made earlier: that some teachers, at least, prefer to teach in a school where many choices have been made for them.

In general, students in the school are inclined to be more candid in their reactions to literature; they would prefer to have more variety, particularly more contemporary literature, and they feel that they should be given more choice in the process of selection.

It is clearly true that in most large cities rather elaborate machinery has been developed to produce "approved" book lists.⁴ Aside from the fact that the procedure will undoubtedly bring about certain economies, because of central purchasing and wholesale discounts, it is an effective deterrent to the use of "controversial" books in the classroom. That principals or English teachers in large-city systems are almost never pilloried because of the class use of a questionable book is a measure of success of the censoring effect of these book lists. Unfortunately, it is also an index of the constraints imposed on teachers who would like to depart somewhat from the always safe and sometimes puerile books that they are asked to teach. To be sure, most schools allow teachers some opportunity to suggest books for adoption, but the judicial machinery to approve, or not to approve--can take a year or longer; and this process, in itself, is enough to induce conformity and restraint. Finally, the tight rein on book adoption evidently discourages teachers from thinking about books that they might prefer to teach, as reflected in the paucity of titles suggested by individual teachers or departments in response to direct questions.

Libraries in large-city high schools do not appear to differ substantially from those in smaller communities in regard to number of holdings (average 14,400) and the number of books per pupil (average 6.6). However, a large majority of pupils expressed a preference for using the public

⁴As noted in Chapter VIII, this procedure is also practiced on a state-wide basis in several areas.

library rather than the school library (76.4 percent in city schools as against 62.4 percent in all schools combined). Whether the difference here is due to the availability of books in the school library or the probability that public libraries were often more easily accessible to the city students is not known. A comparison of the amount spent per pupil in city schools (average \$1.75 per year) with that spent in all schools (average \$2.28) suggests that the city school libraries are not replacing books or acquiring new books at the same rate as are those schools outside the cities.

There is every reason to believe that students who attend large-city high schools read as much as their counterparts in less urban areas. From the reading questionnaire (Instrument No. 21), the average number of books obtained by the city student in the course of a month is 8.8 compared to the overall average of 9.1 in all schools. On the other hand, the number of books read annually by superior seniors in six city high schools was 26.2 compared to 23.0 for similar students in all schools combined.

Rarely did metropolitan high schools provide room libraries where students might browse or select books for out-of-class reading. A notable exception, however, was a school in a midwestern city which operated a modified Rutgers' Plan for selected students. Designated classes meet two or three times each week in a special room furnished with a library of several hundred books, most of them appropriate reading for college bound students. Along with this feature, teachers of "Rutgers" classes are provided with a special clerk and with theme readers. Although the program is still considered something of an experiment and although there remain some logistical problems (students may not take books out of the room), the consensus of teachers and administrators is that the additional expense of the program is more than justified in the results to date, particularly in

the increased emphasis on student reading. Similarly, student response to the plan has been positive.

Table 116 reveals several observed differences between all schools combined and a small group of city schools in regard to the content of English. While the sample of city schools is small, and, no doubt, does not accurately reflect the emphasis of instruction in all city schools, the direction away from instruction in composition in favor of more time devoted to literature is of significance. The meagre 4.6 percent of classroom time emphasizing composition might, of course, be explained (or rationalized?) by the fact that class sizes and overall teaching loads are heavier in the city schools. However, the same point should be asserted here as in Chapter V (Composition), that the great void in this area of English teaching appears to be that students are rarely instructed in writing, not that they lack opportunities to write. Actually, seniors in the city schools reported that they were called upon to write just as frequently as students in other schools; moreover, able seniors reported that they write more often, averaging something more than once per week. Apparently, even though teacher loads are obviously greater in the city schools, the students are afforded as many opportunities to write as are students in other kinds of schools.

The fact remains that observers seldom reported instruction in composition within the English classes visited. If a dearth of writing instruction is a shortcoming in the entire group of schools, it is a critical deficiency in the typical large-city comprehensive high school.

Teacher Recruitment and Assignment

From the point of view of project observers, the most unfortunate result of large-city administrative complexity is the policy of central

Table 116

Percent of Instructional Time Given to Various
Components of English in Large-City Schools and Other Schools

	All Schools Total minutes = 32,580 (n = 116)	Large City Schools Total minutes = 1,770 (n = 6)
Literature	52.2	61.9
Composition	15.7	4.6
Language	13.5	12.2
Reading	4.5	5.2
Speech	4.9	9.1
Other	<u>9.2</u>	<u>7.0</u>
	100.0	100.0

recruitment and assignment of teachers.⁵ In the city schools it is the rare principal or department chairman who is involved at all with the selection of teachers--English or any other kind. Although some report that they do "interview" prospects, the responsibility for recruiting, screening, and hiring resides in the personnel office, which is frequently a good distance from the school both in geography and in understanding of the position to be filled. Actually, the "interview" serves only to introduce an applicant to his potential supervisor and provides the principal, in some instances, with the opportunity to exercise a kind of veto if he feels that the candidate is completely unacceptable for a school position. Infrequently, the department chairman is a party to the interview, but his influence is quite negligible in the whole framework of the system. No doubt large school systems must depend on the efficiency and the expertise of central personnel agencies when hundreds of vacancies occur every year. The problem is compounded by the inevitable fact that schools within the

⁵See also the discussion of teacher selection in Chapter II.

same city are so different in the ethnic and sociological backgrounds of their students. Some of the schools are simply far less attractive to the fledgling teacher than others, and in order to maintain a balance of quality among all of the teaching staffs, districts have policies that require teachers to be employed first by the central office and then assigned to a school. Unquestionably, there are many able teachers who are reluctant to sign contracts, or even apply for them, if they are not given a firm commitment concerning the place they will teach. There is no question either that this policy works to the detriment of most of the schools in many given school districts, from those in the "best" socio-economic area to those in the most depressed area, although the impetus to such comes from the problem of staffing the latter kind. The English teacher sent to the least favored school, even for the laudable intention of maintaining an equitable distribution of teaching talent, will not bring with him the necessary commitment to such a job unless previously prompted by the attitude that the position offers a degree of importance and social worth in proportion to its disadvantages. If, however, he is treated as a mere pawn in this district chess game, he is not likely to develop attitudes that help to promote a successful teaching career.⁶ But, the problems of recruiting and retaining English teachers in schools for the disadvantaged are multitudinous and complex, and the whole issue lies outside of the purview of the National Study of High School English Programs

⁶ Observers from the NCTE Task Force on Language Programs for the Disadvantaged noted that some schools in multiple school districts did conduct their own quasi-official recruitment and hiring in spite of central office policy which in effect forbade these practices. In the opinion of these observers and in the view of these principals, the ends were more than justified by the means; teachers who were selected because of their experience and their commitment to work in such programs were more successful than those who were sent from a central pool.

since schools falling in this category were scarcely represented in the sample. Nevertheless, the problem of teacher selection and assignment in the large school district has its effect on all of the schools in any given district, the highly-favored as well as the apparently least favored.

Among the small sample of city high schools represented in the project, only one principal indicated that central teacher assignment posed no great problem to recruiting the ablest teachers. This occurred in spite of (or because of) the fact that these schools generally represented the better, or at least the more highly-favored, schools in a given school district. One principal said that he had recruited teachers quite satisfactorily until stopped by the objections of the personnel office. Several others admitted that their schools' reputation placed them in a favored position, providing them at least enough influence to request teachers even though the request was not always honored. Apparently one of the principals had kept statistics to prove that 40 percent of the prospective candidates were irretrievably lost to the system because they could not be guaranteed where they would be assigned. Obviously, central assignment has its negative effects on all kinds of schools in multiple school districts.

In contrast to these hiring practices in city schools, the autonomous school districts in suburban areas can very actively seek replacements or teachers for new positions without combatting the restraints of the larger system. Some chairmen and principals in affluent, but small systems, indicated that they were not averse to following the raiding practices of some colleges and universities in order to find the most capable teachers for key teaching positions. It is not uncommon for such schools to have a backlog of hundreds of applications for existing vacancies, where many city school districts conduct a frantic search just before classes begin

to replace teachers who have at the last moment resigned. Most cities maintain a pool of "uncertified" and in many cases unqualified teachers for this kind of eventuality, and a school's reputation can probably be quite accurately measured by comparing the number of regular teachers to uncertified or substitute teachers on its staff.

All things considered, there seems a very logical way to improve the programs in multiple school districts, at this very crucial point of teacher selection and assignment. It is to make individual schools, especially their principals and department chairmen, much more responsible for recruitment and selection of teachers. This procedure would not deny the necessity of having central personnel offices for certain steps in the hiring process, but it would diminish arbitrary and sometimes unfortunate decisions by administrators out of touch with teaching requirements (some of them very subtle ones). Participants at two invitational conferences for department chairmen, held in conjunction with the National Study of High School English Programs, urged that English department chairmen be directly involved in selecting new English teachers if they are to be held responsible for the quality of the programs.⁷ All of the above might easily be construed as a direct criticism of the quality of the teachers observed in large-city high schools, and such a criticism is neither intended nor implied. Observers noted that the English teachers in these schools were neither better nor poorer than their counterparts in other schools. Given the heavy work loads of most of these teachers, the generally poor professional environment in which they worked, and the quantity of administrative machinery with which they had to cope, observers felt that most were doing as fine a job as could be expected. However, it was also noted that English departments in the city schools lacked the cohesiveness that was palpably evident in autonomous, smaller school systems. One of

⁷Robert J. Lacampagne (ed.), loc. cit.

the shortcomings of central hiring is that even well intentioned individuals who make teacher assignments can scarcely be expected to know all of the factors involved in creating a harmonious department, even aided by a job description outlining the facts of a position.

Department Organization

Among the large-city high schools there existed as much variation in the role and responsibility of the department chairman as among the total group of schools. It is true that every school had a chairman, but it is also true that some were no more than nominal positions while others were given a good deal of responsibility and released time to attend to their duties of organization and supervision. At one extreme in one city system is the appointed chairman without additional pay or released periods; at the other is the chairman who must undergo a competitive examination for a vacancy that exists elsewhere in the system, (since one may not move up to the position of department chairman in his own school). Upon appointment, the latter may receive as much as \$2,000 salary increment for assuming what are very real administrative and supervisory duties. No doubt the departmental organization that results from having such a position is greatly strengthened in comparison to those schools that rely on nominal chairmen. There are, however, some problems inherent in making the position of chairman so highly administrative in its nature that it becomes an arm of the overall administration first and a department leader and coordinator second. Although this eventuality may not be consciously built into the position, the sheer weight of organizational machinery can make it so. When, for example, the chairman is required by administrative fiat to prepare twenty-eight copies of an evaluative report for a simple one-hour visit to a single teacher, the machinery of supervision would seem to override the more

beneficial effects of supervision. If the chairman's primary function is so blatantly directed to teacher evaluation, it is highly questionable that he can work with his colleagues to very good effect in the thousands of less formal matters that should require his attention. This is not to say that the chairman should not exercise an evaluative and a supervisory function, but it does suggest that these matters need not be pursued with the same methods that would be fitting for a foreman on an assembly line, not even with the same intensity that might apply to junior executives in the same manufacturing plant. When teachers are continually analyzed and evaluated according to report forms that tend to weigh all its components equally (from adjusting window shades to giving appropriate assignments) they can be expected to follow prescriptive routines quite mechanically at the expense of more individual and more spontaneous teaching.

Given the choice between the two extremes (of the administrative department chairman as against the nominal chairman) the former is undoubtedly to be preferred in sizeable schools. For one thing, new teachers cannot hope to receive proper guidance unless the chairman is given some time to work closely with them. In the usually frenetic environment of large-city high schools, the beginning teacher is likely to feel isolated unless there exists some formal apparatus to keep him oriented to the routines of teaching and to help him use his individual assets to the best advantage. Secondly, if the chairman is not given some responsibility to supervise and evaluate the English teachers, the task falls to someone else--usually the principal or a generalist whose knowledge of subject and method is bound to be considerably less than the chairman's. Thirdly, without an authoritative leader, the department cannot hope to achieve the kind of autonomy and consensus that are so important to the best programs observed in the Study.

Particularly in large comprehensive high schools do departments need the kind of vigorous leadership that will guard against undesirable encroachments from without.

Summary

In summary, large-city high schools are assailed with most of the problems of other kinds of schools, but most of them occur with greater intensity and frequency. The fact that these schools are only a small part of a multiple-school district without the kind of autonomy enjoyed by their counterparts in the suburbs or small cities brings many disadvantages to them with few compensating advantages. One result of the administrative superstructure is that there are comparatively few innovative practices in large, comprehensive schools; programs are slow to change in response to changing needs of their students or to new scholarly research. Although there are many fine efforts by individual teachers, the constraints of the "system" or the problems of size militated against overall programs being as good as they might become under other circumstances. It must be emphasized that all of the subjective reactions by observers were not negative as the following statement will attest:

Despite the oldness of the building and the crowded conditions, there is a spirit of learning reflected in this school. From class to class, in hallways, in informal encounters--teachers and students seem to understand that they are here for educational purposes. Although lacking the pressure and urgency of many suburban schools, . . . compares favorably with most city schools.

Nevertheless, a comment from the other pole (relating to another school) will indicate the extreme variation in quality as found by the observers:

This is an anti-intellectual school if I ever saw one. Controlled reading, limited writing, uninspired and even incompetent teaching lead me to draw no other conclusion. I wonder how much of the atmosphere emanates from the school administration, how much from the central office, and how much from the teachers. My hunch is that all are culpable.

CHAPTER XIII

CATHOLIC SCHOOLS AND INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS

Concerning the basic purpose of the National Study, the project staff at the outset deemed it advisable to concentrate on public institutions, because of the great diversity of certain factors affecting both religious and independent schools. However, the teaching of English in more specialized schools remains of interest, particularly with respect to the possible application of the basic findings of the Study. Therefore, the project staff selected English programs in seven Catholic parochial schools and nine independent schools for detailed study, still using the same methods of observation, interviews, and data collection. Because of the small number of institutions, the programs cannot be considered representative of the teaching of English in such schools. With the help of outside advisors, however, investigators did attempt to select schools reported to have strong programs in English, and emphases in instruction reported by observers suggest certain uniform characteristics among the programs observed.

Catholic Parochial Schools

With the help of leaders in the National Catholic Educational Association, seven schools were chosen to represent the parochial schools in the Study, ranging in geographical location from Lynn, Massachusetts, to Omaha, Nebraska. Three of these were girls' schools, taught by various orders of nuns, three were Jesuit boys' preparatory schools, and one was a coeducational parish school. Their size ranged from 369 to 1,400 students. (Each school was a four year high school.) The boys' schools were college preparatory in nature, although the girls' schools had a high percentage of students entering college, nurses training, or business college after

graduation. Only one school reported less than 50 percent of its students going on to college. Although the sampling of such schools was limited, the programs do indicate the extent to which some of the observations of teaching in the public schools can be applied to Catholic schools.

The student body in the parochial schools was not as homogeneous as one might suspect. The Jesuit schools, being located in cities, drew students from all over the city, their only admission requirement being high scores on entrance examinations. None of the schools reported enrolling students with tested intelligence quotients lower than 100. At the same time, the coeducational school was truly parochial, admitting all students from its parish who applied, and selecting students from other parishes only after the first group was accommodated. In this school, and in two of the girls' schools, some tracking was necessary, although the small size of the schools limited such tracking.

Two of the high schools were located on the same premises as the grade school, so that there was little change to be felt by the student after grade school. Some schools also worked closely with Catholic colleges in the neighborhood or city, making articulation possible in both directions. Two of the preparatory schools had a close association with Jesuit colleges in the same cities, one actually being located on the campus of the college. In some schools, where advanced placement classes were not offered, senior students took a college level course in English which was accepted for credit at the local cooperating college. Such close relationships with other institutions were not always the case, however. One of the girls' schools was located only fifty yards from the boys' school, both under the jurisdiction of the same pastor, but each taught by a different order of nuns who were not familiar with each other's programs.

The principal of each school was generally more directly responsible for the whole curriculum of his school than were many public school principals. Only recently had many of the parochial schools visited begun to recognize the importance of delegating responsibility to the chairmen of individual departments, but unfortunately, many chairmen often must assume the responsibility of improving instruction without the commensurate authority to innovate with some assurance of cooperation. Because the principal performed what is properly the chairman's responsibility, he was often overburdened. Seldom did he have a staff adequate to free him from details a clerk usually handles. Only in one school was the normal complement of workers seen in the front office. Even more draining for two principals was the responsibility of also administering a grade school. Under such conditions, it seems inevitable that the principal become relatively ineffective, not because of inability, but because of lack of time.

One of the major concerns of each principal was the problem of staffing. The schools in general are staffed by as many religious teachers as lay teachers. The religious teachers are not recruited by the principal, but are usually assigned each year by the provincial, in much the same way as in large city schools where a downtown office sends new teachers to the school each year, depending as much on its own logistic problems as on the needs of the individual schools. One department chairman did confide, however, that she had requested that a certain religious be transferred to the school--with success--but this should be considered the exception rather than the rule.

In the Jesuit schools, the problem is again compounded because of the presence of scholastics. After completing work in philosophy, a Jesuit seminarian spends three years teaching in a Jesuit preparatory school before

returning to the seminary to complete his studies for ordination. For at least part of his three year stay, he must be considered a cadet teacher, who is being tried and considered for a permanent high school position. There is no guarantee, however, that after ordination, the teacher will return to that school. These scholastics often study for advanced degrees and are qualified to teach in college. At any given time, then, in a Jesuit school, one third of the religious teachers may be scholastics who are present for only a three year period. (This is not true concerning the nuns. They have usually completed their religious training before teaching in high school, even though once there, they may be transferred at any time.)

Lay teachers, however, are recruited by the principal. The teachers who accept jobs at these high schools are often graduates returning to teach at their former alma mater out of a sense of loyalty to the school and its tradition. But as economic responsibilities become more pressing, the best of them are siphoned off by the public schools in the area; others move into business.

The net result of both situations is a parochial faculty that is quite fluid, with great turnover each year or every other year. One school with a faculty of fifteen, hired seven teachers in one year as replacements. Another with a faculty of fifty replaced seventeen, a third with forty-three teachers replaced fifteen, and a fourth with eighteen teachers hired six teachers in one year. The articulation of instruction thus becomes a major problem, and only one of the schools seemed to have discovered an adequate answer. The problem was compounded in a few schools where any planned curriculum was either non-existent or only sketched.

Another problem, no longer acute in these schools, is the recruiting of full time English teachers. Often in the past teachers of Latin and

Greek were pressed into service to teach two or three English classes. But even though full time English teachers are now by and large present in the schools, the problem of understaffing remains. From information provided by the department chairmen of 172 English classes in session in these schools, 96 had enrollments of 36-40 students, and another 51 had enrollments of 31-35. (In one school, 9 of the 12 classes in English had enrollments over 40.) The average size of classes visited by the observers was 34, with one school averaging 39.9 students per class. In some schools, the teachers of English taught 5 classes, and in one, an additional class of religion. Five of the schools also assigned study hall duties to their teachers.

One unfortunate situation existing in several of the schools was an obvious distinction made between lay and religious teachers. This was emphasized in the interview with the principal when it was discovered that provisions are regularly made for advanced work for the religious teachers, and that their travel is subsidized to and from conventions. But no such situation is created for the lay teachers. Generally, their needs for professional growth are overlooked, perhaps because the schools feel their money is better invested in a teacher who will most likely enter the school system permanently. Observers reported that one school planned soon to provide a half-year, full-pay sabbatical for its lay teachers. But still much of the evidence was indicative of a split, a breakdown in communications. In one school, a layman was invited in by the department chairman (a religious teacher) to represent the layman's point of view in the department chairman's interview. One observer, in writing about the weaknesses of another school, remarked about the "irreconcilable factions within the faculty--the scholastics versus the civilians, the classicists versus the moderns."

As a result of the lack of communication, informal articulation is altogether lacking in schools where it is an urgent necessity because of high turnover. In some schools, the laymen and religious teachers ate in separate dining rooms. One observer remarked: "Too evident a lack of communication and separation between lay and religious teachers. Both factors lead to poor programing, insufficient discussion and exchange of ideas."

But not all parochial schools were incapacitated by the breakdown in communications or by the great number of students enrolled. One project observer reported:

Although teachers were heavily overburdened in terms of classes (6) and students per class (38), they accepted their lot happily--or at least dispassionately. One result of this overload was to put a considerable burden on the immediacy of classroom instruction at the expense of individualized work. This instruction appeared to me to be altogether conventional, but also very good. Above all, teachers were very able in the classroom--drawing ideas from students and using these ideas in their discourse.

I have the impression that teachers, united on a dialectic, teach more variously and creatively--yet with a greater unity of spirit--than any group I have seen.

In the school about which the latter remark was made, the problem of attrition of faculty was allayed somewhat by the use of television lectures given by the department chairman and several teachers both in English and outside English. (The principal in this school at first encountered difficulty in recruiting a staff of English teachers sufficiently conversant with classical rhetoric to work well with a new, experimental program. The TV lectures in the early stages of the program were of great help in unifying a study which eventually became central to the school's whole curriculum.)

One indication, perhaps, of the split between lay and religious

teachers was noted. In the past, only religious people administered parochial schools, but there is a trend now to make qualified laymen department chairmen. This new direction is encouraging, but it is also accompanied by problems. Some of those in religious orders have not readily accepted the direction of a layman, despite the fact that he functions only as an expert in subject matter quite removed from religion. One lay chairman reported he spent much of his time thinking about ways of improving the program, but even more of his time in devising ways of getting the new ideas across to the members of his department in an appealing way. He simply lacked the authority to introduce them through simple fiat. Perhaps as the idea of having a lay department chairman becomes ordinary, the resistance will evaporate--or at least become latent. But the tendency to retain a religious teacher as a department chairman persists, as was noted in one school where a scholastic became chairman after only one year of teaching.

Tradition

In order to understand the present status of Catholic school education, one must first understand its tradition, which is at once its bulwark, and sometimes its bane. In the Jesuit schools, the goal of education for four hundred years has been the "eloquent man." And for almost the same number of years the method used to attain that ideal has been the same: a thorough steeping in classical learning through first-hand knowledge of Greek and Latin. The method was effective when eloquent men were the primary need of society, but since this is no longer a universal need, the present education is less effective, and perhaps less practical, than it was before. To be sure, there is still in society a need for eloquent men, but other men are also being created in other schools just as quickly who,

though not eloquent, are still effective because of the relevance their education has to the changes society has been undergoing.

Many of the programs in Catholic schools are characterized by a desire to attain absolute knowledge and an integrative system which accounts for all phenomena--a system in which all knowledge, if not congruent at various levels, is at least analogous. Those ideas which do not readily conform to the pattern are either forced into the pattern, or ignored as irrelevant. One result is an educational system which places little value upon discovery, unless that discovery leads to what is considered to be the preordained, already discovered truths. Some observers reflected this spirit:

One gets the impression that things haven't changed much at _____ since its founding. The time-tested truths that made up the content of the curriculum in 1900 still remain, and the attitudes and beliefs which marked the reasoning religious gentleman of 1900 are still fostered. Only in science have recent developments forced change, but science is not emphasized at _____. Moral and spiritual values constitute the matrix of the curriculum.

This school has not yet eliminated the Victorian attitudes that had stifled an age.

The department head sees the need for articulation, but he thinks that it should be articulated in terms of moral and spiritual values since he considers them the heart of the program.

I had the feeling that any teacher in the school might freely substitute in every academic area without any disorientation because, after all, the objectives and methodology remain the same.

The program is a good academic, conservative one . . . However, the conservative nature of the program, the reliance on memory data passed down from the instructor to student seems unnecessarily oppressive considering the natural talent of the student body.

I was concerned with what I felt to be an overuse of memorization. Groups of ten boys would stand in front of the class and all repeat the poem they'd learned. With this group of bright youngsters, greater creative teaching and learning should be done.

The students interviewed expressed frustration at the conservative and pedantic nature of their general curriculum.

There is too hasty a clamping of the logic-vice on material. "Traditional" and "modern" were juxtaposed so that Wordsworth was depredated and e.e. cummings eulogized. The group needed Zeitgeist to keep them away from associating bad and good with an either-or situation. All we can think is that most of us have gone through this unsophisticated state and have come out of it.

The result is a Catholic education which is no longer catholic. In the midst of this, traditions of another age persist. In one school, the lay teachers still don the academic gown before entering the classroom, and students wear uniforms or coats and tie. In some schools, the students pass from classroom to classroom without speaking in the halls, affording only limited opportunity for discussion of a stimulating idea just run across in English, history, or sociology. All these underline a type of physical manifestation of the inner conformity to some ideal that is valid and sufficient for every individual.

Certainly, one of the more worthwhile results of this insistence on the quest for absolute truth is the feeling of security it gives many of the less able students, a security not often experienced by students in purely experimental schools where the discovery process prevailed with the simple desire that the students would indeed discover something. All too often in the experimental schools, however, the students found little or nothing, or discovered only what in fact they themselves had already started out with. Their enthusiasm dwindled as they began to realize that more often than they expected, their quest led them nowhere. In the parochial schools the universe happened; the more able students were upset by the fact that every time they set off on a quest, another form of absolute truth was to be found at journey's end. It seems that the constant pressing of these truths on young students can all too easily lead to a limitation of

curiosity, an attitude especially hampering for students going on to further study. Perhaps with the progress the Ecumenical Council has made, a more liberal, less conservative, child will be engendered in these schools.

In the girls' schools there was less an emphasis on the search for absolute truth, and more of an emphasis on the educating of girls who would make good wives for Catholic men and good mothers for Catholic children. Here, an education supposed to have goals reaching far beyond those of secular schools appeared to be one which has goals most practical in terms of Christian living. One observer remarked:

One might say that the atmosphere is parochial and limited in some ways . . . The list [of books] is quite comprehensive for all students however. I did not find evidence of individual effort on the part of students. They are pleasant, generally articulate, but clannish, if not cloistered.

Another wrote: "The academic atmosphere seems to be geared toward producing a comely, fairly well-cultured high school graduate." There was, of course, in some classrooms a true search for insight, but this was rather the exception, reserved for the able, advanced students.

In such a program that seeks for the absolute there is however a good deal worth imitating. Students during their early teenage years are not disposed only to seek and never to find. And yet, the students themselves in these schools said they were not always pleased with the limited scope of the curriculum, no matter what educational specialists say about the definition of terminal objectives. A certain number of classes must always be involved in discussing ideas for which there may be no clear resolution.

Curriculum

Although most of the department chairmen listed as one of their primary responsibilities the establishment and revision of the curriculum, mentioning that such revision was undertaken with the help of the teachers in the schools, the course of study was often created by a committee outside

the school visited. It is the practice in many parochial schools, apparently, that a curriculum under the direction of a superintendent or supervisor be devised by representatives (usually department chairmen) of all the schools in a given province which may include many states. Any changes to be made in the curriculum of individual schools were always subject to the jurisdiction of those responsible for the whole province--to the point that one department chairman mentioned a small improvement that might be made in the present curriculum of her own school, and said that during the next summer session for revision of the curriculum, she would broach the matter for possible implementation throughout the whole province. It would not be ordinary for that change to be made simply in her own school.

Besides creating allegiance to a curriculum often developed outside of the school with little reference to the specific needs of the school, and adjusting both to the rapid turnover of department personnel and to the dichotomy often existing between lay and religious teachers, the duties of the department chairmen were limited by the small amount of released time. Only two department chairmen reported having a reasonable amount of released time available for departmental duties: one had fifteen released periods a week, the second, thirteen. The other five chairmen had three or fewer released periods a week for their duties. In a department of only three teachers, such a small amount of released time is of no great consequence; but in departments of more than ten teachers, such heavy teaching duties make effective leadership difficult.

One of the responsibilities omitted by some chairmen because of lack of time was the visiting and advising of new teachers. Only three listed this as one of their primary responsibilities. The principal in many of

schools still assumes this responsibility, and in fact one principal listed as her primary responsibility the visiting of every teacher in the school once a week for a fifteen minute period, and the subsequent preparation of a report. Fortunately, most of the principals were aware that the proper person to visit and evaluate a teacher ought to be a person in that content area--a department chairman--but this idea awaits implementation in most of the schools. No department chairman reported spending more than five percent of his time conferring with teachers, and one had to report as little as .06 percent of his time thus involved. In only two of the schools was anything like inservice training in progress.

Since the principal does wield a good deal of authority in English departments in parochial schools, one finds that the curriculum suffers a certain amount of "watering down." Rather than considering the course as one in which students explore ideas, learn how to read sensitively, and write responsively, principals tend to view English as more of a service course--although this view was variously worded. One found it a "forum for ideas, with a view toward the learning of moral and spiritual values"; another as the "background for other studies--a sort of doorway to the world"; and a third as "a course where students learn the skills for college processes--a core subject." There was, however, always a recognition that English is at the center of a well built curriculum, and this may obtain because the principals are more sensitive to producing humanists than they are to producing scholars or scientists. One principal related that the course is there "to develop intellectual curiosity, to make the students articulate in thinking." Another felt the course held a "core position in the school because it contributed to the goal of 'articulate humanism.'"

But the contributions towards these lofty goals were made, except for

one notable exception, by the initiative of individual teachers, and not because of an administrative dictum or the development of a province-wide curriculum. In one school where the curriculum was so closely followed by some teachers that one teacher held it in front of him as he taught, one observer remarked: "In the hands of able teachers, of which there are a good number here, the new course of study is enlightening and interesting. In the hands of mediocre teachers (there were some of these too), the course is lifeless and focused on formula and rote learning." Another observer, however, found a curriculum quite conducive to a workable classroom plan, given the teachers qualified to implement it: "Here the strength seemed to be a really excellent course of study. It developed a definite point of view, stressed the best in modern thought on the teaching of English, and was not in the least way prescriptive or restrictive in its approach." Were time given to department chairmen to help the new teachers and stimulate the more experienced ones, the problem would be alleviated. For the time being, though, the strength or weakness in these schools must be gauged in terms of the teachers in the schools. This being true, it is easy to see why the problem of turnover in parochial schools is a crucial one.

Literature

As in the public schools in the Study, the greatest portion of time in the English curriculum was spent on the teaching of literature. The department chairmen in the parochial schools estimated that 57 percent of the time in grades 10-12 was spent on literature: 55 percent in the tenth grade, 60 percent in the eleventh grade, and again 55 percent in the twelfth grade. But even this high estimate was conservative. Of 2,886 minutes of classroom time observed, 1,921 minutes (66.5 percent of the total time)

were spent primarily in the study of literature. Only 313 minutes (10.8 percent) were spent on composition and 297 minutes (10.3 percent) primarily on the study of language (as opposed to a department chairman's estimate of 26 and 5 percent respectively). Much of this same time was spent in the discussion of literature and ideas, or it was spent in recitation. Of the same 2,886 minutes, 962 were spent in discussion, 797 minutes (27.6 percent) were spent primarily in recitation, 597 minutes in lecture-discussion, and 210 minutes in student presentation.

Few of these schools were anthology bound in the traditional sense. Four of them used a series of four paperbacks for each grade level which included large portions of major works rather than short excerpts arranged chronologically. The wide reading of students was praised by many of the observers in the schools.

The reading program is perhaps the real strength. Although no outside reading for reports is required, the students read about 12 books a year for in-class tests and discussion, over and above their work in the anthology.

Some range of literature program (from simple fare to Joyce) suggests that there is a good effort to provide appropriate materials.

In all of my observation cards I noted that students were carrying paperbacks. The range of novels and other books carried indicated that students were doing a great deal of reading--reading of important works.

One of the strengths of the program was a liberalized and liberated (from the anthology) new program which stressed understanding of literary genre. This program, developed in conjunction with another high school, is very explicit (perhaps too much so) in stating what should be taught and how. Nevertheless, there is a good deal of insight and good writing in the course of study, which includes even questions and answers concerning stories and plays.

One of the assumptions sometimes of literature study in parochial schools is that there are strong censorship controls which keep the more controversial books from the students. But this is simply not the

situation--at least in most of the schools visited in this group. Although the course may often have been developed around a core of moral and spiritual values, the readings represented a wide variety of concerns. Among those books studied in one school were The Pearl, The Shadow-Line, The Picture of Dorian Gray, The Return of the Native, Cyrano de Bergerac, the Odyssey. Another school taught Rebecca, A Separate Peace, Catcher in the Rye, Canticle for Liebowitz, The Great Gatsby, Lord of the Flies, Cry, the Beloved Country. Because of the selective nature of these schools, it is easier for teachers to require students to buy paperbacks than in public schools, and, as was noted before, many students often buy these books.

Such purchase of paperbacks is especially salutary because the libraries in many of the schools were limited in holdings, and often inadequately staffed. The Study's checklist of fifty books revealed that these school libraries had an average of only twenty-five, whereas the public school libraries averaged thirty-eight. The average number of holdings in these libraries was 8,158 (10.5 per student), in contrast with 11,925 (6.9 per student) in the public schools. But the nature of the holdings differed markedly from that of the public school libraries. For instance, almost one half of one library shelved books of moral and spiritual edification.

This tendency to purchase reading material of a religious nature is most readily evidenced in an examination of the magazines subscribed to. These libraries subscribed to as many magazines as did the public school libraries, but they were not of the same kind. Of six libraries checked, only three had Life, four Post, two Look, and five Time, four of the magazines most widely read by high school students. One library subscribing to fifty-four magazines, had only twelve of thirty-seven magazines from a

check list of more commonly read magazines, but subscribed to a great number of religious magazines such as: America, Bible Today, Catholic Boy, Catholic Digest, Catholic Educator, Catholic Layman, Catholic School Journal, Catholic Library World, Catholic Messenger, Catholic Mind, Catholic World, Commonweal, Jesuit Missions, Jesuit Science Bulletin, Jubilee, Patna Jesuit, Our Sunday Visitor, and Sacred Heart Messenger. One third of the magazines, then, were of a specialized nature, either religious in content or in approach. This same library had neither Look nor Life, neither Atlantic nor Harpers.

The same situation, although less easily describable, was noted for the books held. The only book from the check list held by all libraries was The Heart of Darkness. Five libraries had Pride and Prejudice, Jane Eyre, Wuthering Heights, The Ugly American, Tale of Two Cities, The Return of the Native, The Scarlet Letter, The Old Man and the Sea, Babbitt, Moby Dick, and Vanity Fair. But none had Exodus, only one had An American Tragedy, The Sound and the Fury, Les Miserables (for many years on the Index of Condemned Books), Of Human Bondage, or Razor's Edge. Only two libraries had Lord of the Flies, Catcher in the Rye, Brave New World, 1984, A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man, or The Magic Mountain. Despite students being encouraged in these schools to buy paperbacks and teachers being allowed to require their purchase for classroom work, it seems that the libraries could still hold more books that would reach the interests of the students. Even though these schools offer their students a significantly different education, this does not mean that the students who enroll at these schools are significantly different. Responses to individual questionnaires by advanced twelfth grade students show that the interests these students have in literature is quite the same as those shared by students

in public schools. If books and magazines of specialized interests are to be provided for these students, they should be provided as additions, over and above what is normally required by students in any school system.

Composition

Because of the large enrollments for each class, the problem of assigning and grading compositions was just as acute, if not more so, in the parochial schools as in the public schools. Still, in some schools, the effort was made, and often enough with remarkable success. One observer wrote: "_____ did an excellent, really an outstanding job of teaching a tenth grade class. One hears about the necessary coordination of literature, composition, and language. One seldom sees it practiced, however. _____ was able in his lesson to completely mesh these content areas. His work on teaching sense impressions and sense words was particularly good with linguistic material presented naturally and well." Another reported: "Students do not do enough writing. However, under the circumstances of heavy loads on teachers, they do all that can be expected, and probably more." Yet, there were problems. Teachers here, as in the public schools, all too readily identified teaching composition with the grading of themes, and although some few of the themes reviewed showed careful commenting that would help students in rewriting, all too often the remarks were cursory, the grading symbols many, and the marks too high for the quality of the papers. In some schools, students still compiled folders entitled "Modern Poets Illustrated" or some other, with the usual busy work carefully pasted to diversely colored sheets of heavy bond paper inside. One observer in a girls' school was concerned by what he called over-readiness to assign theme topics "conducive to silly themes with grades not commensurate with the quality."

Again, the strengths in teaching most often seemed dependent on the individual teacher. One observer wrote: "_____, although a first year teacher, was very impressive in his work on composition. As a technical writer of several years' experience, he knew and could discuss what was wrong with a student's writing. If composition skills can be taught, I felt that his method of getting at the technical/structural difficulties of a piece of writing was the best method I've seen so far. Here was a case where a proficient writer was able to explain the process of writing to his students." One of the problems is that many teachers of composition are not writers themselves--at least to any great extent. But here, the teacher was not spending his time simply assigning themes to students and then hurriedly grading them in the late evening hours or on Sunday afternoons. He was working in class with student themes, demonstrating what was right and why, what was wrong and why.

Language

Although not much classroom time was observed as being spent on language, the students often enough complained in the twelfth grade interview of too much language teaching and too much repetition. It is significant that parochial schools have more foreign language study than public schools on the whole. One of the schools in the group required seven years of language for graduation; the total group averaged 3.4 years of language study in high school. For this reason, especially where Latin is studied, students often get a "double dose" of traditional grammar study: what is not taught in the English classroom is taught in the Latin classroom, and thus the feeling arises that too much time is spent on traditional language study. Some of the schools are now beginning to work with modern grammars, but the work is still seminal. (One department chairman with a fellow

teacher has just completed the first of a series of books on language incorporating ideas from scholarship in the English language. In these schools, although not the rule, a greater effort was expended by some teachers to make language learning significant, just as the "Word" is significant for the whole Catholic religion. One program attempted to integrate the teaching of language and composition by designing a quarter of each year to be spent on the study of differing methods of discourse: literary discourse in the ninth grade, rhetorical discourse in the tenth, dialectical discourse in the eleventh, and a synthesis of critical analysis in the twelfth-- a program considered to be the core of the whole high school curriculum. The program was unified through the use of televised lectures (or rather, lecturettes) which were subsequently followed up by the teachers' classroom discussion. Although the department chairman was most responsible for the program in its inception, as teachers came to the school better prepared in the study of Aristotelian rhetoric, more and more of them with specialized knowledge appeared before the camera. The result was a program which, although conservative in terms of the study of modern language study, was one which was unified and one which was able to operate as articulated, in spite of the threat of high turnover. It was in this school that one observer wrote: "Sr. _____ [again a new teacher] had almost an intuitive knowledge of language and how to teach it in the classroom. During my observation, she and the class worked and reworked verbally sentence patterns, using the familiar lyrics from My Fair Lady as a base. Not one student seemed uninvolved. Not one student seemed unfamiliar with the lyrics."

Independent Schools

The supplementary grant alluded to in Chapter I also provided funds for a study of nine independent schools of varying kinds. Once again, opinions of the advisory committee and of knowledgeable professionals were solicited concerning schools which would have interesting and distinctive English programs. After reviewing the returned forms on high school characteristics (Instrument No. 1) from a small group of independent schools, it was clear that the same kind of careful sampling process described in Chapter I would not be appropriate for these schools because independent schools generally fall into different kinds of groupings. For one thing, the large majority of private boarding schools are clustered on the Eastern seaboard, particularly in the New England states. Other schools might be roughly catalogued as day schools, military schools, coeducational day schools, schools with distinctively parochial bearings, boys' schools, girls' schools, etc. With the necessity of confining the sample to a mere handful, the investigators found it impossible to include all varieties of independent schools on a statistically valid basis. Therefore, the nine schools involved were chosen, as far as possible, to represent programs judged to be exceptional in English and also, like those chosen in the group of "experimental" schools, to give a picture of uniqueness to the visiting staff members.

Of the nine schools selected, four are boarding schools, one a military school, four are coeducational, one an adjunct of a university, one a girls' school; three are in New England (two have strong religious associations), three are in the Midwest, and one is in the State of Hawaii, which had consistently produced winners of NCTE Achievement Awards.

Because of the diversity of the group and the small size of the sample,

it is dangerous to generalize overtly from the data. Nevertheless, gross comparisons between the original 116 public schools of the Study and the nine private schools can be made quite realistically and will assist in interpreting the original data. It will often prove helpful to think of the private schools in two groups--the boarding schools and the day schools, the latter of course having a much greater affinity with the typical public school.

Some of the most extreme and overt differences exist in the matter of numbers and costs, the private schools costing well over three thousand dollars per pupil per year compared to the day schools' average of about nine hundred dollars, a figure that is close to the amount required in some of the most affluent suburban schools in the Study. Secondly, independent schools represented in this report send a much higher proportion of students to college than do the 116 public schools. In the boarding schools 98 percent of the students are college bound; in the day schools, approximately 90 percent. (The schools themselves, by the way, are of vastly different sizes, having graduating classes of as few as seventeen students and as many as 338.) No doubt, this emphasis on "preparing students for the university," or as it sometimes happens, preparing students for admittance to the university, has some effect on the program of the private school. However, in the opinion of the observers, and contrary to popular opinion, the schools did not concern themselves with mechanical, rote-learning activities merely to qualify their graduates for prestigious colleges. Still, it is quite clear that a considerable amount of advanced screening is involved in selecting students who, with some diligence, will have little trouble in gaining admission to college at the end of their secondary education. To that extent this group of schools is little concerned with

the problems of the terminal student, nor even with the problems of drop-outs that so plague the public high school. Therefore, it was particularly interesting to the observers to find some of the independent schools committed to the problems of disadvantaged youth. In fact, several of the most traditional and college-oriented schools have made plans to develop special summer programs for culturally and economically disadvantaged boys from the ghettos of large cities. In some instances, boys who responded to these special summer sessions have been accepted by the school for their entire high school education. Once they accept students, the faculties tend to assume responsibility for their young people, even to the extent of offering special remedial classes. While it is true that some of the independent schools have moved in this direction, the project staff felt that these programs were not being touted as a vast social enterprise, nor that they offered at this point a clear line for others to replicate. They appear to be highly individual efforts of the schools organized on a very small scale to help relieve a long-standing social problem--the inequitable distribution of high quality education. Probably to some critics, what they are doing may be the very essence of tokenism.

Obviously, the main concern of private schools (aside from the "special" places like schools of correction or schools for social problems) will continue to be for the capable and academically oriented boy or girl. And it is the English program developed for this student that was of the most interest to the project staff.

Anyone who makes even a casual comparison between the public high school and the private boarding high school will notice very clear differences, and these variables noticeably affect the English programs. For example, the private school English teachers works under very different

physical circumstances. He inhabits the same (or nearly the same) environment as his students; he is involved in a closer dialogue with them, not only because of the smaller classes and the considerable discussion in these classes, but because he coaches their games, proctors their dormitories, and eats at the same table. To the public school observer, the ratio of students to teacher undoubtedly seems the most significant of the differences. Whereas the public school English teacher is responsible for teaching perhaps 150 pupils per day (130 in Study schools) in classes of 30 or more students, his private school counterpart is normally expected to teach no more than four classes of from 12 to 15 pupils per class. Such a ratio has obvious effects on the writing program, but it has further and perhaps more important effects on the entire content of the English course and the way that English is taught. Although there is some indication that innovations in teaching methods (i.e., large-group instruction, programmed learning) are being considered for adaptation to the private school situation, these schools have been and still are committed to Mark Hopkins' notion of education. Several of the schools promote tutorial sessions for special students and all of them thrive on the principle of small classes. If it is impossible to have a teacher on one end of a log and a single student on the other, it is altogether practical and advantageous to have one teacher and some ten or twelve students surrounding a large oval table in a comfortable classroom furnished often with shelves of books, a fireplace, prints hanging from the wall, and a pleasant New England scene to contemplate outside the windows. And it is true that the basic method of instruction appears to derive from these physical trappings. It is conversational without being intimate, industrious without being regimented, and above all else it is humane. A boy may think he is going to private school to prepare for Harvard, but in

effect he will get a considerable and liberal education along the way. From the point of view of the principals, this is what is eminently to be desired; so they are quite unanimous in saying that English is therefore the essential subject of the entire program. They are in general agreement, too, that the best method of instruction is the Socratic dialogue around the Harkness table, the teacher a master of subject matter and a talented provoker of questions.¹

If the observations of content emphasis in the public school classrooms suggested that literature was the main object of instruction, it might as easily be said that it completely dominates instruction in the independent school classrooms. However, such a statement would be quite misleading. It is true that, using the same devices as were used in visiting the original 116 schools, observers noted that of nearly 3,000 minutes of classroom time, more than 81 percent was directed primarily to instruction in literature. Table No. 117 indicates the various percentages in all nine independent schools for all components of English as analyzed by the observers. In making any overt comparisons between these results and the uses of classroom time in the public schools (Table 38) one should keep in mind several important differences. By comparison to the student population in most public high schools, the student body of the private school is highly selective and homogeneous. Secondly, the private school student does not depend altogether on classroom instruction for learning as is evidenced by the remarkably complete libraries and the fact that he is in constant communication with his peers and almost as frequently with his instructors. There is much evidence that individual conference sessions, if not outright tutorials, are held with great frequency in the independent school,

¹Again, it should be mentioned that there was considerable variation concerning the physical and intellectual atmosphere of these schools. The assertions made here are with respect to the New England boarding school, not to the broad group of independent schools.

Table 117

Content Emphasized in Classroom Teaching in Independent Schools
(n = 2,950 minutes)

Content	Percentage
Literature	81.5
Composition	4.0
Language	7.1
Reading	2.0
Speech	4.0
Mass Media	.8
No Content	.6

particularly in the boarding school. No doubt much of the instruction in composition that one might expect to find in the classroom is simply handled in more direct fashion on an individual basis. While it appears that the public school English teacher spends twice as much time teaching language than his independent school counterpart, it should be remembered that the heaviest emphasis for such matters occurred in the lower level classes, Grade 10 and terminal. In all Grade 12 classes combined (public schools) the language component accounted for only 8.4 percent, obviously a very slight figure according to many teaching specialists, but one that does compare with the 7.1 percent found in the private schools. Despite what may appear to be small differences in the attention to speech and reading in the independent schools as compared to their emphasis in public schools, the fact is that an overwhelming majority of private schools, no matter what kind, do not seem to provide any direct instruction in these matters. On the other hand, it is equally clear that there is considerable emphasis on them in more indirect fashion. For one thing, private schools are very strong on presenting student plays, for providing opportunities for debate

and, most importantly, requiring constant student involvement in the classroom dialogue. For another, the strong emphasis of reading literature means that students are always reading and that they must do it at a fairly rapid rate to keep up to the mark. Compared to their public school peers (who are normally assigned on a book or two a month, plus two or three "outside" reports each semester), seniors in the private schools averaged over thirty-five books per year. What seem to be lacking are prescribed programs in speech and reading or, for that matter, in language; but to make this point critically may well be begging the real issue of whether or not the existing programs train and inspire their students to read and respond critically to literature and, further, to extend their creative faculties. Whatever chemistry the better private schools have developed, it appears to have these effects. The success of their students on the College Board Examinations and the enviable record of admissions to first rate colleges and universities is a matter of public record; the reports of the project observers concerning the quality of classroom discourse would appear to verify the efficacy of the practices toward developing these qualities.²

There seems to be little standardization of the English curriculum among the independent high schools, or even among the instructors in a single school. What a student studies depends more on the inclination of

²The investigators have seen reports that some graduates from these schools do little better than public school graduates during the freshman year at college. Surely the high degree of selectivity in admitting public school graduates to major private colleges and universities accounts in part for the excellent records of such students. Surely, too, there are other less tangible variables at work here, but unfortunately they are too far from the focus of the Study. Noting the highly stimulating educational environment in some independent schools, however, project staff members could not help but speculate that graduates of independent schools might sometimes find introductory college classes less stimulating than many of their secondary school experiences.

his teacher than on a ready made course of study, although there is usually some consensus concerning literature that might be taught at particular grade levels. When asked for a course outline or a curriculum guide, department chairmen almost invariably responded by handing over a list of titles that might be taught with some frequency but were, it was made quite clear, subject to change from time to time. Exceptions were observed to this practice of the "unstructured" curriculum, and dissenting voices were heard from those who wanted a tighter arrangement, but generally this response epitomizes at least one facet of the independent school--its dependence on the individual teacher. As one principal put it: "The boy takes the man; he elects his teachers year by year." And what is quite clear, the man establishes the content and the tone of the class within very broad limits. As is evident from Table 117, literature is the basic part of instruction for the great majority of the classes, but what is not clear from this single table is the way in which it is taught and how it affects the other components of English.

As noted above, the dominant method of instruction in these schools is discussion. Observers pointed out that this was the practice in nearly every class observed, although as with the public schools, recitation was given first priority more frequently. The telling difference was the number of times Socratic questioning was cited in independent schools, occurring as frequently as did lecturing. Allowing for differences among observers concerning the delineation of "Socratic," and therefore combining discussion with Socratic questioning, there is no question that these schools, as a total group, with their smaller classes and conducive environment, have found discussion to be the most effective form of instruction. Inasmuch as there was a considerable discrepancy between what public school teachers felt

they were doing by way of discussion and what they were observed to be doing (See Chapter III) it seems profitable to explore the nature and purpose of discussion as it is used in the private schools of the Study.

Undoubtedly the small size of the classes contributes emphatically to the frequency and the success of discussions in the private schools. Compared to an average of thirty students per class in the original group of schools, the average number of pupils in the independent schools was only seventeen, and this figure is somewhat inflated because two schools had class sizes of over twenty and resembled public schools in their organization. It would be more accurate to say that the typical private school English class (aside from those involved in large group instruction) would have no more than eleven or twelve students.

But aside from the merely physical qualities of the independent school classroom, there is much more to say about the flavor of the instruction, the way of discussion, that distinguishes the whole tenor of the private school English program. Toward this end the following report from one of the project observers is quoted:

I have said that the physical characteristics of the classrooms and of the entire school are conducive to discussion, but there is something more. Whether teachers are instructed in this "method" or not I do not know, but they all conduct their classes in the same relaxed, Socratic way. Students have had a reading assignment, usually an entire work. They come to class with the book, and the teacher begins by asking a question about the text: "Here in this story by Dylan Thomas and in this one we have two opening sentences, the one about 40 words long, the other about 180 words long. How do you account for the difference?" After a number of comments that gradually range back and forth throughout other elements of each story, including symbols, details of characterization, and tone, it becomes apparent that the entire class discussion is devoted to the question of style in literature; and the students, at the end of the hour, have come to realize that style is a complex thing involving a great many elements besides the mere arrangement of words. It may well be that another teacher in the following year will also have something to say about style, but there will not be duplication of effort in the usual sense because the discussion is new: it will be on a higher, or at least different, level in another class, and new elements will enter into it.

Quite apart from the classroom dialogue (but in another way, continuous with it) is the constant discussion among the students themselves outside of the classrooms. Obviously there was no way of monitoring this kind of activity, but one cannot visit a boarding school of the excellence of those observed by the project staff without being aware of the frequent conversations occurring which have direct correspondence to the academic work at hand. In this context, the student is faced with a constant audience for ideas, both in and out of class, and such an audience does much to create a stimulating intellectual climate. On the other hand another observer thought that the atmosphere might for some students induce a shallowness or glibness that could undermine real learning:

At times, or at least for some clever students, I think this system breaks down. Students are trained to speak well--to present a view, to adopt a pose--and I suspect that some of them, adept at learning the formula, get along very nicely without proceeding very far--without bringing their full intellectual prowess to bear.

This, however, was a minority report of a tangential nature. With respect to the independent boarding schools under discussion here, nearly all of the observer reports suggest lively, purposeful discussion of the kind that the visitors rarely saw in the original 116 high schools.

The obvious implication for public high schools is that they try to emulate similar patterns of meaningful discussion in their own terms and on their own grounds. Although it is beyond the bounds of practicality to suggest that public high school classes be reduced to a corresponding eleven or twelve students, surely special arrangements can be made by the high school administration, the English department, or even by individual teachers to divide classes on some regular basis to promote active, meaningful discussion and thereby to gain the dividends. However, to merely divide classes and then to expect this benefit of increased classroom participation, higher planes of discussion, and a greater degree of involvement is to be naive. As pointed out in the discussion on experimentation and innovation

(See Chapter XIV), seminar-sized groups in some public schools seemed to produce negative results without the direction and stimulation of a teacher who believes in the process of discussion and is not afraid to depart from prescriptive course materials to achieve a dynamic classroom atmosphere. Even without overt changes in the overall organization of classes and seminars, it would behoove most English teachers to consider the merits of dividing their own classes for discussion purposes.

As noted above, students in the independent high schools do considerably more reading than their counterparts in the public schools. No doubt the whole structure of these schools, along with its atmosphere, its small classes, highly motivated students, and gifted teachers do much to encourage this constant reading. It is clear to the project's observers also that the libraries in the private schools do much to promote student reading. Interestingly, the four boarding schools averaged more than 50,000 volumes per school compared to less than 12,000 in the schools of the original sample. The group showed solid holdings in appropriate literature as attested by the fact that a total of three books were unavailable from the book list (Instrument No. 13) from all four libraries. These very extensive libraries were also superbly staffed, having as many as seven trained librarians in the largest of them. As distinct from the ALA recommendation that would have ten books per student, the better private school libraries had ninety or more. And what is at least as important as numbers, in the opinion of the project staff, the books were constantly accessible to the students. With some regularity, observers reported seeing numbers of students carrying books other than texts. It would be patently unfair to compare the time that independent school libraries are open with the time public school libraries are accessible to students;

after all, the boarding school is a more or less continuous operation. Nevertheless it should be noted that they are open almost twice as long, and that the day school libraries (which comprise a more satisfactory index) are open more than an hour longer than the public school libraries.

Reference to Table 118 will suggest some of the reading sources for twelfth grade students in seven of the independent schools. Other information indicates rather different student habits in acquiring books in day schools and boarding schools respectively, but the most interesting comparison is between the total group and the superior twelfth grade pupils in public schools. It is certainly logical to find that the most frequent source of books reported by the public school students, the Public Library, now ranks fifth for independent school students who, it must be remembered,

Table 118

Most Frequent Sources of Books
Borrowed During the Previous Year as
Reported by Twelfth Grade Students in Independent Schools
(n = 80 students)

Source	Number of Responses	Percentage of Students Mentioning	Percentage of Public School Students (from Table 88)
Purchased	69	86	66
School Library	50	62	55
Home Library	43	54	45
Borrowed from Friends	34	41	32
Public Library	24	30	83
Borrowed from Teachers	15	19	10
University Library	12	15	14
Classroom Library	11	14	8
Other	2	2	1

are generally more restricted in their movements. However, the high incidence of mention for the high school library must also be owing to the generally well equipped and well staffed libraries noted by project staff observers. Suggestions and recommendations in Chapter IX (School Library and the Personal Reading of Students) are clearly appropriate for public schools in view of these comparisons.

In general, observers of private school programs agreed on at least two observations concerning their writing programs. For one thing, they conceded that, except for a very few individual instructors, there was little program in the sense of having structured, sequential assignments dealing (in textbook fashion) with the various rhetorical and stylistic principles. In its place, however, was an approach that may be roughly compared to the classroom method described above, one that places a premium on the individual contribution and reaction of students and teachers alike. Thus, compositions whether literary response or personal essay are often read before the class and then critiqued both by the teacher and the students as to its wealth of ideas, the appropriateness of its diction and usage, and the consequences of the writer's rhetorical position. It was also reported both from direct observation and from students' own reactions in interview, that most teachers spend considerable time and thought in annotating the written work of students. And of course instructors are frequently available for individual conferences concerning writing. Further data from student interviews suggest that seniors write rather more frequently than do public school seniors, the most common response being in the order of twice a week. In comparison to the public school English teachers, independent school teachers also make more "free" or spontaneous assignments calling for narration and description, as well

as those kinds often alluded to as "creative," meaning conforming to some literary genre. As with the public school student, the private school boy or girl appears to value this kind of assignment particularly. Under these conditions, where writing can be taught individually, where the student-writer is nourished and cultivated by hand, there seems little need to engineer elaborate programs of uniform and sequential assignments to insure comprehensiveness and order. Indeed, to the extent that such an organized program counters the unique, creative teaching of individuals, it is clearly contrary to the best interests of students and teachers alike. Virtually every independent school faculty represented in the Study placed high priority on the teaching of writing. As one headmaster put it: "Writing is the essential part of the English program. It is disciplined but imaginative thinking." And there, it would seem, is the heart of the independent school education.

As suggested above, little classroom time is spent in these schools dealing with language as a unique component of the English program. As a group, the independent school English departments have given little thought to bringing into their curriculums any special studies with respect to lexicography, phonology, dialects or any of the linguistically-oriented grammars. Nevertheless, it should be noted that of all the schools in the Study, the one that has gone farthest in its study and application of transformational-generative grammar is one of the independent boarding schools.

It remains to be said that the English program found in most of the private schools does not conform as easily to the analytical procedures devised to study public high school programs. One reason that they do not is simply that they are not so fragmented as their public counterparts because of the very nature of the independent school. The education tends

to be more of a piece, or as one teacher said, "a way of life." Ideally, all aspects are therefore incorporated toward that end, to produce a literate, liberally educated graduate who is, by the way, socially adept and, it is to be hoped, capable of holding his own in a highly-rated college.

The studies of programs in Catholic parochial schools and selected independent schools thus reveal certain attributes germane to the nature of these institutions, as well as features which seem characteristic of most English programs in the country. However limited were the visits by the project staff, the strengths which they described might well be emulated by more public institutions. In the independent school, especially, the attention to discussion, textual analysis, and close pupil-teacher relationships clearly contributes to the quality of many English programs. Although conditions in most public school programs prohibit extensive use of small classes on the independent school model, department chairmen and principals might do well to consider ways of achieving similar results through greater use of discussion seminar groups, and similar approaches.

CHAPTER XIV

EXPERIMENTAL ENGLISH PROGRAMS

The study of selected English departments engaged in experimental program design began after visits to more than half of the 116 schools of the National Study showed comparatively little experimentation. The project staff, aware of widespread discussion in professional journals of new approaches to the teaching of English, wondered why so few departments were initiating curriculum changes. A supplementary grant from the United States Office of Education enabled the staff to visit nineteen schools with successful experimental programs in nine different states. In selecting these schools, the project directors solicited recommendations from advisory committee members, state supervisors and consultants, and leading curriculum specialists. Methods of approaching the experimental schools were identical to those employed in visits to all schools of the Study.

As a group, the 19 schools engaged in experimental curriculum projects differed from the 116 original schools only in their smaller size. Student enrollment in the smaller group averaged 1,022 students, ranging from 58 to 2,550 pupils; this contrasts with an average of 1,797 students in the 116 schools, suggesting that curriculum experimentation is more likely initiated in smaller high schools. In other ways, however, the experimental group resembled the basic group of 116 schools. Students enrolled in commercial programs in both groups of schools averaged 25 percent, ranging from 9 to 39 percent. Some 59 percent (ranging from 29 to 79 percent) of the students in the experimental schools enter college, compared with an average of 52 percent for the basic group. The schools ranged from the very new (constructed in the last three or four years) to schools forty years old. The nature of the communities, their socio-economic characteristics, varied

as much as did the characteristics of those in the original Study. Because of the small number of schools involved, detailed data are not comparative, but observers' reports suggest no marked difference in composition of schools in either group.

Not surprisingly, in view of the criteria used for selection, the physical plants of the schools attracted considerable attention, because they reflected basic administrative concern with innovational programs. In thirteen of the nineteen schools visited, new building or renovation made available to the English department special instructional areas to accommodate small and large groups, conference rooms, and other means to implement experimental approaches to teaching.

Another reflection of basic administrative concern with new instructional programs were the strong school libraries present in many of these schools. Whereas the average school in the Study reported holdings of only 6.8 books per student and annual expenditures on new books, replacements, and magazines of \$2.28 per capita, the experimental schools averaged 8.46 books per student and expenditures of \$4.64. As a total group, the nineteen experimental schools came far closer to meeting the American Library Association's standards of ten books per student.

The English programs in these schools appeared to differ less in content stressed than in use of certain innovative methods and materials. Table 119 summarizes project reports on the content emphasized in 4,757 minutes of observed classroom time in 313 classes of the 19 experimental

schools. Although differences between the emphasis in the experimental programs and the classrooms of the 116 schools are apparent, the similarities seem to be greater in number. Stress on the teaching of literature in the experimental schools remains apparent (39.3 percent)--still two and one half times the emphasis placed on composition and language--although it is noticeably less than in the 116 schools of the Study. Curiously, the emphasis on language, composition, speech, and mass media remains relatively constant, the most noticeable increases occurring in the emphasis on reading (almost doubled from 4.5 percent to 9.9 percent; on no content emphasis; and on miscellaneous classroom matters (roll taking, attention to mechanical arrangements in large groups, etc.)

Similarly the basic methods used by teachers in the experimental schools roughly parallels the emphasis in the original 116 schools, as shown by Table 120. Discussion, recitation, and lecture remain the basic approaches, with no sufficient changes in percentage to support any generalizations. A noticeable increase in use of audio-visual equipment by the teacher was noted, with 7.1 percent of class time devoted to such use as contrasted with a paltry 1.6 percent in the original schools. In view of the extensive equipment available in many of the experimental schools and the conscious effort to use visual materials to hold attention in large group meetings, this increase is to be expected. Curiously, the percent of class time devoted to student presentation is less than half of that in the other schools (6.4 percent contrasted with 14.3 percent). Silent work rises to 13.5 percent (from 10.4 percent), perhaps because of the increased use of independent study. Except for these minor changes, the basic emphases remain the same, as 66 percent of class time in the initial 116 schools and 60.1 percent of class time in the experimental schools were

Table 119

Content Emphasized in Classroom
Teaching in Experimental Programs
(n = 313 classes in 19 schools)

Rank	Emphasis Reported by Observer	Total Number of Minutes	Percent	Percent Reported in 116 Original Schools
1	Literature	1,871	39.3	52.2
2	Composition	779	16.4	15.7
3	Language	590	12.4	13.5
4	Reading	472	9.9	4.5
5	Speech-Formal or Informal	257	5.4	4.9
6	Mass Media	80	1.7	1.3
7	No Content Emphasized	170	3.6	.8
	Other	<u>538</u>	<u>11.3</u>	<u>7.1</u>
	Total	4,757	100.0	100.0

Table 120

Methods Most Frequently Used in Classroom Teaching in
Experimental Schools as Reported by Observers
(n = 313 classes in 19 schools)

Rank	Method	Total Number of Minutes Receiving Major Use	Percentage	Percent Reported in 116 Original Schools
1	Discussion	1,036	21.6	21.7
2	Lecture	851	17.9	21.1
3	Recitation	982	20.6	22.2
4	Silent Work	638	13.5	10.4
5	Audio-Visual	340	7.1	1.6
6	Group Work	310	6.5	1.9
7	Student Presentation	298	6.4	14.3
	Other	<u>302</u>	<u>6.4</u>	<u>6.8</u>
	Total	4,757	100.0	100.0

Table 121

Frequency of Selected Classroom Practices in Experimental Programs
(n = 28 observer reports on 16 schools)

	Much in Evidence; Widespread to Con- stant Use	Frequent Use By Some Teachers	Some Indication of Occasional Use	Infrequent Use Suggested	No Indication of Any Use	No Report on Practice
Silent Reading in Class	4	6	14	3	1	0
Writing in Class	4	9	10	4	1	0
Pupil Conferences with Teacher	1	14	7	5	1	0
Classroom Book Collection	2	7	7	4	8	0
Use of Workbooks	0	4	5	8	10	1
Programed Instruction	1	0	8	10	9	0
Team Teaching	12	10	3	1	2	0
Independent Study	5	11	10	1	1	0
Use of Single Anthology	2	4	5	10	7	0
Use of Grammar Texts	1	3	14	8	2	0
Use of Multiple Sets of Texts	7	10	5	4	2	0
Remedial Reading Program	3	5	9	4	6	1
Use of Reading Laboratory	1	4	5	4	12	2
Developmental Reading	2	4	7	5	8	2
						444

Table 122

Rank Order of Selected Practices Reported in Widespread or
Frequent Use in Experimental Schools
(n = 28 reports on 16 schools)

Rank	Classroom Practice	Number	Rank for 107 Schools in Original Study
1	Team Teaching	22	12
2	Use of Multiple Sets of Books	17	4
3	Independent Study	16	7
4	Pupil Conferences with Teacher	15	9.5
5	Writing in Class	13	2
6	Silent Reading in Class	10	5
7	Classroom Book Collections	9	8
8	Remedial Reading Program	8	11
9.5	Use of Single Anthology	6	1
9.5	Developmental Reading Program	6	9.5
11	Use of Reading Laboratory	5	13
12.5	Use of Workbooks	4	6
12.5	Use of Grammar Textbooks	4	3
14	Programed Instruction	1	14

devoted to recitation, lecture, and discussion, in almost equal proportions.

But if the basic approaches remain constant, certain specific practices are greatly modified in these programs. As Table 121 indicates, those approaches associated with experimental teaching--team teaching, use of multiple sets of books, independent study, pupil conferences with teachers--are reported as frequently used by more than half of the observers. Table 122 indicates the widespread differences when this report is contrasted with the similar reports of the conventional programs visited (Chapter III, Table 47.) The more conventional approaches--use of a single

anthology, writing in class, and use of grammar textbooks--are less evident in the experimental programs visited than are many innovative practices. These basic findings were to be expected inasmuch as the schools were selected because they were experimenting with such approaches. However, the decline in use of single textbooks, whether anthologies or grammar books, seems by no means corollary to experimentation with team teaching, even though characteristic of these schools.

The lack of interest in programmed instruction in both experimental and regular schools may be worth noting. Despite the availability of an increasing number of programmed textbooks for teaching English skills, teachers appear reluctant to introduce such materials. Surprisingly, perhaps, the use of such programmed books is no more widespread in schools introducing independent study, where auto-instructional materials become important, than in conventional programs. Although the directors of the Study did not consciously seek schools experimenting with programmed materials, they by no means excluded them. The fact that only one observer in twenty-eight reported such materials in frequent use in the experimental programs (and only 14 of 187 observers in the regular schools) suggests that the use of such materials in high school English programs is currently slight and it may be sometime before they are widely used.

The experimental programs seem to differ, then, primarily in the introduction of specific new approaches, in available resources, and occasionally in classroom design. In most other respects, as detailed analysis of cumulative written reports indicates, these programs closely resemble conventional English programs. But in overall assessment, many observers suggested additional distinctions. Whereas the dominant strengths of the 116 original schools were rated--in order--the quality

of school administrator, tradition of learning in the school, nature of the students and community, school plant, curriculum sequence and design, and quality of staff (Chapter III, Table 35), few observers commented favorably on either curriculum sequence and design or quality of staff in summarizing their impressions of the experimental schools. Indeed, lack of sequence in curriculum and inadequacy of teaching staff ranked second and third in weaknesses noted, second only to inadequacy of department head. Quality of staff, program in composition, department head, resources available for teaching, climate of work in the department, program in literature, and light teaching load were among the highly ranked strengths of English departments identified by observers of the 116 schools (Chapter III, Table 36). In the experimental programs, most observers ranked department head, resources available for teaching, light teaching load, and climate of work in the department as meriting specific citation. In only two instances did observers feel the quality of the staff was a special strength of these schools, and as the comments later in this chapter indicate, a majority of observers actually expressed strong reservations about the staffing of many experimental programs.

Nor were the project's observers generally impressed with the overall curriculum sequences in these schools or their composition and literature programs. With one notable exception, most observers reported that design of programs, however commendable the experimental efforts, was confused, lacking in sequence and substance, and unlikely to stimulate important pupil learning. The concern for administrative organization, for change in traditional approaches, for innovative action at the expense of important traditional concerns becomes apparent in the detailed reports. Because of the varied nature of the programs, the descriptive reports are summarized in terms of the four basic innovative patterns observed in many

of the schools: variations in use of staff, variations in scheduling and use of time, variations in grouping students, and development of programs in the humanities.

Variations in Use of Staff

Since competencies of individual teachers may be utilized more effectively than through continuing assignment to a single classroom, administrators have explored new patterns of organizing instruction. Not always are the purposes for the experimental utilization of staff clearly articulated, but school leaders who consciously consider why they have modified traditional approaches seem agreed that most achieve more efficient instruction by permitting individual teachers to utilize their special training or to pursue special interests. A corollary purpose, widely discussed in professional journals but discovered in only two schools visited, is to provide continuing inservice education for beginning teachers through day-to-day contact with more experienced members of the faculty. In practice, project observers found few schools experimenting with staff utilization which were not also engaged in some restructuring of the traditional school day. Thus, developments in staff utilization in English are discussed separately here only as a convenience.

Paraprofessional Help

Widespread, as well as widely accepted, are attempts to provide the teacher of English with paraprofessional assistance for the purpose of relieving him from routine responsibilities so that he may concentrate on matters of a professional nature. By no means provided only in schools with experimental programs, some form of paraprofessional assistance was reported in 20 percent of all schools visited. Clerical assistants, sometimes students, not only perform routine tasks like recording grades,

typing, filing, and maintaining class roles, but on occasion manage textbook records, recording libraries, departmental centers, and even laboratory rooms for students. As the number of books and items of equipment assigned to teachers of English increases, more assistance of this kind seems mandatory.

Lay readers to assist classroom teachers in reading and annotating student themes were utilized in almost 20 percent of the schools visited. Frequently, such help is made available only to certain teachers, such as those assigned classes in advanced composition, although in some schools each English teacher is allocated a certain number of hours of reader help. Practice varies from school to school. In some locales, readers are selected, trained, and assigned by the English chairman; in others, by district supervisory personnel. One metropolitan system has organized such an extensive program that a district English supervisor devotes virtually full time to selecting, training, and placing lay readers throughout the schools. The care with which such personnel must be selected and placed cannot be overemphasized. Not all teachers of English function easily in such a close relationship with another individual. Some teachers insist on reading all of their students' papers, and resent the intercession of another person "between them and their pupils." It is worth noting, however, that the most vigorous opposition to theme readers comes in schools which do not provide such assistance. A majority of the teachers in schools providing such help discovered satisfactory ways of working with readers and thus express support for the plan. (See discussion in Chapter V.)

Not always did project observers report theme readers contributing to the strength of programs in composition. The quality of the readers' annotations on student papers varies as much as the directions which they are

given. Whether the annotations are restricted to mechanical correction of overt errors or concern stylistic and rhetorical problems depends on the wishes of teachers and on the purposes of programs. However, more than a few teachers admitted some unhappiness over the unwillingness of many readers to confine corrections merely to mechanical problems. Indeed, it appears unlikely that better qualified readers are not permanently willing to restrict their comments as rigorously as some teachers would like.

The more successful programs, according to project observers, are those in which the readers are viewed as supplemental to, rather than replacements for, the teacher. The regular classroom teacher reads and annotates as many papers as he can, surely one every two or three weeks. Papers read and annotated by the reader, and spotchecked by the teacher, are additional assignments. Thus the ultimate effect is not to relieve the teacher, but to provide additional writing experiences for the pupils. The distinction is an important one, for too often observers found administrators regarding lay readers as a solution to the load problem and, not infrequently, offered English teachers the choice of either slightly reduced pupil-teacher ratios or services of a part-time reader. This limited conception of the potential value of outside readers forces teachers to view the use of such paraprofessionals only as solutions to the teacher load problem, rather than as assistants with important contributions to make. Indeed, some of the schools which use readers most effectively are those in which teacher load is already reduced to four classes and not more than 115 to 125 students.

Reading Supervisors

Only a few observers reported schools using paraprofessional help to supervise students in English classrooms. One particularly effective program involved the assignment of an intern-teacher to the supervision of a reading room used by students in three separate classes. The reading room

contained a library with hundreds of individual titles appropriate for student reading as well as numerous reference works. Space in the reading room allowed for seventy-five students, twice the number in the average classroom, so depending upon their instructional programs for each day, the three English teachers could each send as many as twenty or twenty-five students to the room. The exact assignments for each day (whether independent reading or directed study) were planned jointly by the three teachers and the reading room specialist. The flexibility of the arrangement permitted teachers to meet with small groups, seminars, and even with individuals as they wished. On the day project staff members were visiting, one teacher operating on an alternate-day basis met with fifteen students for intensive discussion and study, while the remainder of the students used the reading room; another teacher sent all but a few students to the room during the last half hour so that he could sit with a seminar of gifted students studying Sinclair Lewis' Main Street; and the third teacher chose not to use the resources of the reading room on that particular day. In the reading room itself, the supervisor helped students in locating books, maintained order, or assisted those engaged in specific study assignments, but did not otherwise share in instructional responsibilities. Many programs featuring independent or guided study appear to be floundering because so little supervisory time is available; more schools would do well to consider, then, the employment of paraprofessionals for such positions.

Television Teaching

The use of closed circuit or educational television to introduce special lecturers or particularly effective teachers to large numbers of students has received wider discussion than actual acceptance. In only a handful of schools, few of them in the experimental group, was television

being used in the teaching of English and then only to supplement, rather than supplant, regular classroom work. In two districts, closed circuit television programs prepared especially for certain groups of students, were regularly broadcast and teachers utilizing the programs received advance information concerning the programs. In one, broadcasts of a program in American literature were scheduled only once or twice weekly (on an announced basis) and were clearly designed as enrichment experiences rather than as the basic core of the course. Thus, programs presented writers and the processes of writing, poetry readings, discussions of American cultural achievements in architecture and dance, and similar "extras" beyond the range or resources of the individual classroom teacher. In general, teachers and students responded favorably, although many expressed a desire for kinescopes of the programs to be made available for broadcasts in the school at an appropriate time for student use.

Far less satisfactory, according to project staff members, was a course on structural grammar presented daily to an assembly of about 100 students supervised by one teacher of English and several proctors. The remoteness of the daily thirty minute presentations and the inability of even the clever classroom teacher to offer adequate additional explanation in the remaining fifteen minutes made such instruction seem stiff, formal, and far removed from learning which engrosses the students. Even the teacher felt the experience was unsatisfactory, although she was planning to repeat the course with fewer weekly programs and a smaller class group. Television instruction of this kind seems to require planned follow-through in the classroom, for its very remoteness discourages learning involvement. Indeed, most obvious concerning use of television in teaching English is the widespread lack of interest even in schools equipped for showings. Several

schools which once reported flourishing programs seem to have abandoned the attempt. However important, then, as a supplementary resource, and however important in community service, educational television, as a direct instructional aid, seems not to have withstood the test of time.

This is not true, of course, with kinescopes based on television presentations. Flexible in their possibilities and capable of being incorporated into any instructional program, good kinescopes are frequently used. In fact, kinescopes appear to possess all of the advantages of live television, save immediacy, which is normally not of major consequence in the teaching of English. Development of less expensive videotape transmitters suggest that they, too, may become widely used in schools of the future. Teachers seem not unwilling to consider possibilities but harrassed by overloaded classes and inadequate preparation time, they seek instructional aids which are free of complexities in planning and operation. Those interested in the possibilities of educational television would do well to devote more attention to making available to schools kinescopes and videotape copies of excellent programs.

Telelecture

The imaginative use of telelectures, long distance telephone lectures and discussion involving outside specialists and student groups, is being explored by schools to make guest specialists available to teachers. One school organized a two-week unit around the writings of Jesse Stuart, after making prior arrangements for the telephone conversation with the author. Each class discussed questions to be directed to the writer and elected a representative panel of interviewers. At the appointed hour in a special room, the elected representatives conversed with the author over telephone while the entire student body listened. The novelty of the experience

provided a high degree of motivation for student reading as well as an effective demonstration of oral communication.

Even more unusual was the use which one small rural school administrator found for the telelecture when aware that his half-time teacher of English was actually trained in another subject. Recognizing the need for more specialized resources, he designed a program of weekly readings by more mature students from several grade levels of a selected number of single books--novels, books of essays, biographies--followed each Friday by an hour-long telephone lecture and discussion led by a qualified staff member of the state university located 300 miles away. The comparatively low cost of telephone transmission, coupled with ease of operation, make it a particularly useful aid for schools in rural locations.

Team Teaching

The theoretical advantages of team teaching are manifest: cooperation of teachers, use of specialized interests of teachers, flexibility in teacher time, and more thoughtful preparation of lessons. Unfortunately, in practice, these advantages are seldom realized. Whether teams are composed of as few as two teachers or as many as six, and project observers reported both extremes, the strengths of team planning and teaching are achieved only as the group of teachers are able to work together. Staff members visited twenty-two schools in which team teaching was being attempted in English, as well as a few others where it had been recently abandoned. Several experimental schools were visited especially for the purpose of observing programs of team teaching in English which received widespread acclaim. With only one or two exceptions, project observers were dissatisfied with the quality of teaching that they viewed.

Two problems are the absence of cooperation of teachers on the team and inadequacy of teacher preparation. Despite the verbal emphasis on joint

planning, observers often found that team assignments were made without provision for joint preparation time. The inevitable result was a flimsy separation of teaching responsibilities into discrete lessons, with different teachers assigned different topics and thus little attempt to relate one lesson to another. Sometimes teachers reported being plunged into the team teaching experience without advance planning; others reported that they could meet with their colleagues only while one team member was directing class activity. Thus, such meetings as seemed possible would be scheduled during lecture periods, but then at the expense of teacher involvement in the continuity of classwork. There would be lectures--on poetry, composition, on a wide variety of topics--almost always presented to large groups; but seldom, indeed, did subsequent small group meetings and discussions relate intelligently to the lectures. Because the students were often not prepared for the lectures or because the teachers of small groups were not present (normally they claimed to be conferring elsewhere), no discernible attempt was usually made to relate large and small group sessions to the content of the lecture. The effect was fragmentation of subject and loss of whatever potential contribution a planned lecture might make to the continuing work in English.

No specialist on staff utilization would comment favorably on much that was reported by project observers, and most claimed with justification that these problems could be overcome. But so widespread is the absence of team planning, the fragmentation of the subject, and the identification of large group instruction with lecture (rather than with studying, reading, testing, viewing, or listening to recordings) that most team projects at present seem merely to represent an extension and magnification of some of the worst practices of the single classroom approach.

The lectures themselves pose a separate problem. Those who recognize the complexities involved in teaching students to write, to read, and to think, question the potential value of the lecture in English classrooms. The alarm expressed by project observers over the percentage of English class time devoted to lecture and recitation has already been expressed. (See the discussion in Chapter III.) Large group lecture is likely to produce even more passive learning, for lectures on literature tend to deal with facts and lectures on composition seldom relate to the actual composing of students. A lecture on speech preparation, as viewed by one observer in a large class for slow senior students, seemed alien to both the subject itself and to the learning needs of the students. Regrettably, the folklore seems widespread among administrators and teachers that, insofar as team teaching is concerned, the lecture method is the method. Again and again, principals and department chairmen would proudly escort project observers to the lecture room for the "show." And show it was. In attempting to capture and hold the attention of students for an hour, teachers resorted to the imaginative use of a variety of aids and devices--transparencies, slides, fragments of tape recordings, dramatized scenes which hold attention whether they teach anything important or not. Indeed, so transfixed were many administrators and teachers with the nature of these large group "shows" that they apologized repeatedly to project staff members who appeared only when students were meeting in smaller groups.

Whatever their value in other subjects and however they may be praised by administrators, large group lectures in English are not designed to carry the essential burden of instruction. To learn how to write, students require careful criticism, individual conferences, and a detailed discussion of their own problems; to learn how to read and evaluate ideas, students need to engage in carefully directed discussion of individual literary works.

This instruction can be provided most effectively in smaller groups. Large group lectures could be planned to support these activities, even to motivate them, although they seldom do. In their anxiety to impart information, the teachers in large group lectures direct very little attention to the essentials of the subject.

Nor do many teachers and administrators seem to be exploring the potentially great uses of team teaching to individualize instruction. Where team members possess different specialities in English, where the fundamental purpose of instruction is to use the combined strength of the team in diagnosing individual needs and in providing specialized instruction, team teaching is of unquestionable value. In one team teaching situation involving slow readers, for example, some ninety students and four teachers were assigned to a large reading room daily. On most days--at least three hours weekly--students read appropriate books of their own choice under the supervision of one or two teachers. The remaining teachers, however, provided needed reading instruction for small groups of students; groups of ten to fifteen students were moved into small classrooms next to the large reading room for instruction in word attack skills, in phonetics, and in comprehension. Through careful diagnosis and intelligent use of teacher resources, an attempt was made to make available the real resources of the team.

Another commendable program was the shared teaching program in one large high school, making possible small tutorial sessions. Tenth grade English in this school consisted of three large group lecture hours per week, directed by two teachers, plus a one-hour tutorial in which six students met with one of the teachers. The teachers taught jointly the six hours of lecture to two separate classes of 100 students each, an instructional load of six hours, then each devoted some seventeen additional class hours per week to meeting small tutorial groups. Of the thirty teaching hours during

a five-day week, the teachers were occupied for a maximum of twenty-three hours. Project observers visiting the school reported that the large group lectures reflected the usual superficiality associated with such meetings, but they were enthusiastic about the tutorial sessions. Said one observer: "For the learning values which a student can derive from an hour of well planned tutorial instruction in writing or reading with a master teacher, I would willingly accept the banal but harmless nature of the large group lectures." Yet too seldom did project observers find schools even directing attention to what might be accomplished in smaller groups.

Like many other innovations discussed in this report, team teaching has failed thus far to make an important contribution to English instruction because it has seldom been related to the essential purposes of instruction. Where it has been seen as a method of providing more varied instruction to groups of students, where viewed as a way of making possible small tutorial and seminar sessions, it seems to be accomplishing important purposes more frequently than if merely used as an administrative instrument to introduce a series of showy large group lectures which, however interesting, are seldom important in the overall goals of English. Not too facetiously, one weary observer suggested that teams of teachers be assigned four or five small group meeting rooms without a large lecture hall and be asked to plan jointly whatever might be accomplished under such conditions.

Variation in Scheduling and Use of Time

No less revolutionary but frequently more successful than innovations in class organization are the many experiments concerning flexible use of teaching time. Despite difficulties of distinguishing new departures in scheduling from new uses of staff, certain promising practices were identified in several of the schools visited and are best discussed separately.

Essentially flexible scheduling of class time is based on the recognition that students may best use learning and study time in different ways at every educational level. The notion that a seventh-grade class in English and a twelfth-grade honors class require the same number of hours each week for English, much less the same distribution of minutes, is so patently absurd as to require little discussion. Yet, by and large, the pattern of organization of the school day has seemed to assume that equal time is required at every level. Beginning with the experimental programs introduced largely in the early sixties, teachers and administrators have been seeking ways to achieve greater variety. Flexible use of class time to provide for large group sessions, seminars, and tutorial or independent study sessions appears to be the most widespread practice, although increasingly schools are attempting modular scheduling. Of equal importance in English instruction, however, is the institution of special hours or rooms for reading, writing, and study purposes.

Large and Small Groups

Administrative scheduling of large and small group instruction may be distinguished from the team teaching projects previously reported. In some schools, the decision concerning assignment to large or small groups is predetermined by the time scheduled; it is not decided by the team of teachers responsible for instruction. Thus, in these schools it is customary for English instruction to be regularly divided each week into a set number of large group sessions, seminar sessions, and periods for independent study. In one such program, the teacher responsible weekly for two one-hour lecture sessions with 125 students also met with each student in two one-hour seminar sessions (ten students in each), and supervised their work during two independent study hours devoted largely to writing and

reading. In another institution, four teachers met together once weekly for a large group session for 200 students or more, planned jointly by the team, but each worked separately with seminars of ten students on the regular schedule. Still another variation called for large group meetings on Monday, followed by alternating seminar and study periods, with the certified teacher directing the seminar work and a study hall proctor employed to supervise independent work on the alternate days.

The variations are many, but the characteristics are uniform. In an attempt to provide more efficient learning, it is necessary to identify those aspects of a subject best introduced in large groups--lectures, recordings and films, dramatization, testing--from those elements more suited for small groups or seminars--the teaching of reading or composing, discussion skills, the analytical reading of a novel. Many programs also provide some study time, either for reading or writing or for independent research.

Theoretically, few questions can be raised about the underlying purpose of such use of time. Because twenty-five or thirty students meet daily in a regular class schedule, teachers of English face the problem of organizing class instruction to provide time for conferences with small groups and individuals. A reorganization of teaching time which provides greater planning flexibility has long been an important instructional goal.

In practice, however, the potential advantages of such programs seem all too often lost. The large group meetings, as was reported in the discussion of team teaching in the last section, encourage the presentation of information, a comparatively unimportant aspect of a subject like English which depends so heavily on the processes of using and receiving language. Despite the heavy emphasis on lecturing and telling even in conventional

classrooms, few of the project observers commented favorably on such approaches. And the lack of attention in large group instruction to methods of presentation other than the lecture suggests that, whenever schools do institute programs involving large groups, a careful program of inservice education may be desirable to show teachers effective ways of using instructional time.

If large groups seemed disappointing in quality of instruction, they were the sine qua non for small group instruction. Almost nowhere did project observers find seminar-type instruction introduced on a regular basis except when paralleled by large group assignments. Most observers saw immediately the potential value of sectioning in English which brought together ten or fifteen students with an experienced classroom teacher. The possibilities for detailed study of literature and teaching of composition, for providing detailed instruction in reading or in other important skills, are far greater in sections of this size than in conventional classroom groups. Unfortunately the potentiality is only partially realized in many programs, because of ignorant planning. In few cases, for example, were attempts made in programing to organize groups in terms of apparent student needs or abilities. Few schools made it possible, for example, for those students with reading problems to meet at the same time; seldom, indeed, were these seminars anything but heterogenous in character. Not only did the work of most such groups seem unrelated to earlier large group meetings, but frequently they did not lead into periods of independent study. Thus, in effect, a student was enrolled in one English class taught in a large group--meeting once or twice a week; a second in his seminar which most frequently was scheduled to meet twice weekly; and if he was assigned a study or laboratory period, his assignments

there were not infrequently unrelated to either of his regular classes. Even when the large group-small group-independent study syndrome was assigned to a single teacher, these problems in continuity arose. When supervised by a team of teachers, the problems of coordination were magnified substantially. How many of these difficulties were characteristic of programs not yet well established is difficult to say. But it seems clear that the coordination of related instruction presented through both large and small group sessions imposes special problems on instruction which can be met only through careful planning. Many teachers were frank to recognize the difficulties, franker still to indicate that they lacked adequate planning time required for a solution. However, they enjoyed the potentialities of the new approaches, they felt that the coordination of large and small group instruction required considerably more careful planning than did conventional approaches to teaching.

Those seminars which were well planned and supervised by an informed teacher alert to the possibilities of the lesson being presented, were among the most exciting hours reported by members of the project staff. Almost always observers reported the involvement of virtually all students in the work of the hour. A high degree of attention to individuals, a comparatively free exchange of ideas among students, and an exploration of ideas in far greater depth than in the conventional classroom is possible under these conditions. But such quality teaching is possible only when the teacher is well prepared, when the purposes of the lesson are clear, and when the learning steps involved are carefully plotted in advance. Much to the surprise of staff members, some teachers seem not to recognize the potential value of such seminar meetings. Far from preparing carefully to lead a discussion in such groups, they approach the class noticeably without

anticipation. Often misguided in thinking that the "real" instruction had been presented earlier in large group sessions, they choose to regard the seminars as a time for unplanned, student-led discussions. In one extreme case, a teacher actually told observers that such seminars were scheduled merely for the purpose of giving students an opportunity to "interact," that he was uninterested in whether the "interaction" dealt with English at all. In one of his classes, the rambling talk ranged from comments on a recent assembly to discussions of the "purple passages" in books recently read by teenagers, including Another Country and Candy. At no time during the hour did the teacher attempt to direct discussion or learning. Said the staff observer: "Such time is largely wasted. Most of the talk is only at the level of a 'bull session' or, I suppose, a slumber party. Sometimes six or eight students are talking at once. Sometimes one argumentative person monopolizes half or more of the time. Under such conditions, 'discussion' sometimes doesn't rise above the level of 'Yes, it is,' 'No, it isn't.' The relationship of the hour to the supposed topic of a unit is often slight or invisible."

Poor teaching is poor teaching, whether in small groups or large. A teacher who fails in his fundamental responsibility of guiding student learning cannot be excused because of the system in which he is working, nor should a system be condemned because of the inadequacies of those practicing in it. There is a central place for undirected, student-led discussion in the teaching of English, but it must be built only upon conscious, directed instruction in the skills of conversation and communication. In this program, as in too many others, the real potentialities of the seminar approach seems to elude many of the teachers, even as the limitations of large group instruction are understressed. If the real potential of these

new approaches to instruction are to be realized in teaching English, schools will need to devote far more attention to the education of the staff.

Modular Scheduling

Observed in only a few of the experimental programs visited, and then often in the initial year of operation, were programs of modular scheduling under which instructional time in English is divided into daily periods of unequal length. Modules of fifteen, twenty, and thirty minutes were observed--the first reported by one principal as too short, the last by another as too long. In any event, the purpose is to provide flexibility in scheduling of instructional time on any given day. A three-module period on Monday (45 minutes) might be followed by two-modules on Tuesday (30 minutes) and by four on Wednesday (60 minutes). The exact determinants of period length appear to be the demands of the subject weighed against those of related subjects. Enjoying the advantages of flexibility, some teachers limited their use of short periods to lessons in English grammar or to spelling tests, reserved the longer periods for lessons in literature and composition. Almost inevitably they responded favorably, although a few found it difficult to adjust to such a variable schedule.

Fragmentation of subject instruction seemed the inevitable result in some schools, especially when English was subdivided into various elements and skills, each of which was assigned a certain number of modules each week. Thus in one such program, an observer reported two modules of reading on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday (40 minutes), one module of "declamation" on Tuesday and Thursday mornings (20 minutes), one module of speech on Tuesday and Thursday afternoons (20 minutes), three modules of composition on Friday (60 minutes), and various other fragments of English strewn throughout the week. In view of almost unanimous agreement of specialists

on the importance of interrelating instruction in English, modular programing which slices the English program into unrelated pieces seems doomed to failure. Fortunately, this fragmented approach seemed to be the clear exception.

If modular scheduling can neglect the demands of the subject, it can also impose unreasonable demands on the students. In one computerized, modular-scheduled program visited by staff members, the instruction evolved for students and faculty alike was so outrageously lacking in organizational principle that it was impossible for either student or teacher to recall his daily assignments without reference to a program card. On Monday, for instance, English is scheduled from 9:00 A. M. to 9:45 A. M., but on Tuesday it is scheduled from 2:30 to 3:00 P. M.; on Wednesday it precedes the noon hour; on Thursday it is split into morning and afternoon hours of equal length. Noting the confusion of one tenth-grader still fingering his program card in late February, an observer discovered with dismay that the schedule was not new to the boy--it had been in operation since the previous September!

Obviously, such chaotic programs will soon be eliminated from modular programs if they have not already been. Some administrators, where student enrollments are low, prefer to do their own modular scheduling rather than rely on computer machines. This enables them every month or so to re-schedule or readjust classes to allow more time or less, depending upon the progress of instruction. In one western school, new schedules are even reported to be made on a weekly basis, each teacher in each subject reporting on Friday the total number of modules he would like for each class for the following week. On Monday morning, students and teachers receive their weekly schedules. Provided adjustments are not wrenching and class schedules

changed too radically, such flexibility seems to possess real advantages. During weeks when classwork demands more careful teacher guidance, an extra hour might be assigned to English; during periods when much independent reading and writing is required in a class, direct instructional time might be greatly reduced. Modular scheduling is new in English. The dangers seem apparent, but the potential gain is great.

Occasional Lengthened Periods

Related to the flexibility in time attempted through modular scheduling, but developed independently, are the efforts to provide occasional longer class hours in English for instruction which cannot be adequately fitted into the conventional period. Of major importance in such efforts are the double periods allowed for composition in many college preparatory classes. Recognizing the significance of the process of composing and of providing sufficient class time not only for discussion and prewriting activity but for supervised classroom writing experiences, an increasing number of schools seem to provide this occasional double-period for composition. In some schools, students scheduled for English and social studies were programmed "back to back." During alternate weeks, each teacher claimed a two-hour, uninterrupted period for class activity. In another school, the administrator arranged monthly for each class--whether English, science, or industrial arts--to meet for extended two hour blocks. One of the successes of the Dean Langmuir-NEA Project on Composition has been its successful refinement of the extended composition period.¹ The conventional class hour of fifty minutes does not allow sufficient time to "get ideas going," says one observer. But the two-hour period does. Observers visiting such classes were favorably impressed by attempts during such

¹Clarence Bish and Arno Jewett, Improvement of Composition (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1964).

extended periods to assist students with the processes of writing as they were engaged in writing.

Long periods in English have other uses, too. Field trips are less widely utilized in secondary schools today than many years ago, but brief trips to art museums or local centers of interest are more possible when lengthened periods are scheduled. This is also true with the development of a serious program of film study. Increasingly aware of their obligations to teach the motion picture as contemporary literature and to assist students in applying to film the same analytical methods of study and evaluation they learn in studying literature, an increasing number of teachers have become discouraged over organizing such study within the fifty-minute hour. The use of fragments and short films are appropriate perhaps as aids to teaching but not for the introduction of film as content in English. A two-hour block of time, on the other hand, would make feasible a planned program of studying major American and foreign art films in their entirety. Films like "The Informer," "High Noon," and "The Seventh Seal," could be shown during such periods, then discussed during the regular class hours. The long period offers many possibilities for reorganizing work in English.

Reading Rooms and Writing Laboratories

The creation of specially equipped English study halls, complete with books for adolescent reading, with auto-instructional materials, and with key reference sources is related to the reorganizing of class time to provide more independent study as part of English. Reading rooms with up to 2,000 titles of appropriate books, largely paperback, are not uncommon in several experimental schools. Indeed, the suggestion in 1960 by Paul Diederich that teachers divide classes daily, so that half might read while half received instruction in small groups, has done much to promote more

independent reading in secondary classrooms. Although in-class individual reading was not overly common in many of the 158 schools visited by the project staff, the use of classroom libraries was characteristic of many schools with independent study and four actually organized reading rooms (usually with reading supervisors) to which English classes were regularly assigned. In two schools, moreover, a special English laboratory was created in which not only books but recordings, programed self-instructional materials, typewriters, and various other supplies were made available. Students were expected to complete two hours of independent study in English each week. The laboratory, supervised by regular English teachers, provided the space and materials to make this program a success. Indeed, the extensive nature of materials--filmstrip projectors, slides, and various resources--seemed almost to invite browsing. Slow students in this institution had their own laboratory room for English, imaginatively combined with the laboratory for science, so that the various materials for English and reading were not only available but were combined with high interest science equipment. Both a science teacher and an English teacher were regularly assigned to the laboratory to help the students. And adjacent to one end of the laboratory room stood a specially designed reading center, complete with comfortable reclining chairs and carefully designed books for high interest but low vocabulary demand. With reasonable planning and careful supervision by teachers, independent work in such laboratory rooms can be productive. The obvious enthusiasm of students moving from station to station, completing lessons, listening to recordings, viewing film strips, entering corrected compositions in their cumulative folders (filed in these rooms) indicated that the rooms were achieving their purpose.

Another interesting variant of the specially equipped laboratory was observed in a small, isolated community of the Southwest, where junior high school students met together during the first long period of the day designated as the English period. Sixty to eighty students seated themselves at long tables and worked individually at prescribed work--reading literature or programed reading materials, writing assignments, taking special tests at the end of particular units, or, in some cases, working closely with one of the two teachers in the classroom. A lay person also served as clerk to supply materials or administer tests to students after they had finished particular units. Some students, of course, were freed from the laboratory to use the school library adjacent to the room. During the following "period," senior high school students took over the laboratory, while their junior high counterparts went on to other courses, some of which were "taught" in the same fashion.

Such a program clearly depends on the commitment and know-how of the teachers, who must also be prepared for a good degree of cooperation in outlining the course in considerable detail. Fortunately for this school, the teachers appeared to be both knowledgeable and industrious, and although the system had been installed only recently, there was evidence of student enthusiasm and student learning. On the negative side, the project staff questioned the advisability of dropping all traditional class sessions, since two obvious losses would result. First, students can scarcely hope to develop their discussion and oral communication abilities if they are not afforded frequent opportunities. Second, there is clearly a lively side to literature, particularly with respect to poetry and drama, that can only be exploited to its fullest in classroom situations. The dynamics of the classroom, the interaction of the students, the feeling of the emotional

moments that should be part of the response to literature, will be missed in such a program. Nevertheless, the program as observed showed that intelligent use can be made of a variety of programmed materials and also that continuous instruction can occur quite apart from the normal classroom situation.

However, special laboratory rooms for English are being introduced in only a few schools. Expanded school libraries and instructional materials centers which provide carrels for independent work, listening rooms, and opportunities for viewing, listening, and writing seem to be somewhat more characteristic. Although enchanted by the design and possibilities of these expanded libraries, observers seldom found them as widely used as the regularly scheduled and specially designed laboratory rooms. Perhaps because many librarians feel that regularly scheduled classes prevent independent student use of the learning center, administrators have been loath to schedule independent library periods for students. Perhaps this is as it should be. Still the success of some laboratory periods for English suggests that either ways must be found to permit student groups to work in school libraries or parallel facilities for independent study must be established.

Independent Study

The key to independent study appears to be supervision. Where students know what to do and have the materials and space available, programs of independent study are invariably successful. Where students are merely turned loose, whether honor students or not, the expenditure of time seems highly wasteful. In the schools visited by the project staff, the strikingly successful illustration of a sound independent study program occurred in the laboratory described. It was well equipped, it provided ample space and

reasonable freedom, and it was supervised--gently but firmly--by teachers. In schools where students were granted independence but not held responsible for their use of time, the hours were largely wasted. In one school, observers watched some 200 boys clamber across a fence to watch a baseball game in a neighboring junior high school. In another, despite a physically attractive library which was conducive to study, pupils seemed content to loll in the hallways rather than to engage in any intellectual task.

Much of the success of independent study programs seems to depend on the directions given by teachers. When these directions are relatively precise, when students know what to do despite a great number of choices, they respond well. When they are given time without clear direction, they rarely respond well. Several experimental schools which once attempted independent study programs abandoned the effort even before project observers arrived. Others were considering substantial modifications. Learning to use freedom with responsibility is an important goal of American secondary education--a goal to be approached only through sound guidance. As one observer wrote after viewing a characteristic program in action, "Students are given much freedom to complete certain work according to their own rate and interest. Highly motivated students probably can go very far, but I fear the average student, without some built-in motivation, will not gain much purpose or incentive here."

Except where selected advanced students are involved, the best solution for providing semi-independent study at the moment appears to be the supervised English study hall, reading room, or laboratory period, an intermediate stage between the restrictive atmosphere of the traditional teacher-supervised study hall or the completely unrestrictive freedom of "non-assignment." In a laboratory room filled with reading and viewing

materials, with options for study and independent work available, with reasonable freedom to move and to choose, most young people respond well.

Variations in Student Grouping

With natural variations in human ability and learning, widespread differences in capacity and achievement are expected in any heterogeneous school population. Reading ages based on standardized test scores, once widely used as a basis for sectioning, may vary at any education level by the number of years that students have been in school--a variation of ten years in reading ability expected in a normal tenth grade population, a variation of twelve years in the twelfth grade. An overwhelming majority of schools in this Study try to accommodate differences in student ability through three- and four-track programs which classify students into separate sections according to whether they are below average, average, above average, or college bound students. Some schools also organize honors classes. In a few cases, sectioning is carried to even greater extremes; one team of observers, much to their disbelief as well as disapproval, found students classified into eleven different ability groups at every instructional level. However, such extreme, ultimately unsuccessful attempts to categorize students into a great many levels are as unusual as is abandonment of any grouping practices. Only in small schools, which can not provide separate sections, is some form of homogeneous ability grouping not in evidence. Some of the unfortunate social, intellectual, and educational effects of such grouping, particularly in the programs for lower tracks, have previously been discussed (Chapters III, VIII, and XI). Still the evidence accumulated in this Study suggests that grouping in some form is accepted by most American teachers and administrators. Yet so concerned are educators about

the effects of grouping and the need to try fresh approaches to meeting individual differences that three different experimental approaches are worth reporting.

Ungraded Teaching

In an attempt to remove any ceiling to the achievement of gifted pupils, as well as to provide adequate instruction for the slow, some high schools are experimenting with ungraded teaching. Such ungraded teaching has long been associated with primary school reading programs; it is now being introduced into secondary English programs in a variety of ways. One widely emulated approach is that developed at Melbourne High School, Florida, where English classes are divided into five ungraded levels. Each student generally continues through his high school years in the ungraded section to which he was first assigned, whether basic, regular, advanced, honors, or quest. "Quest" students, the very superior, pursue what amounts to almost a complete program of independent study under the general supervision of a "quest" program supervisor, but with regular classroom teachers as outside consultants. Thus students engaged in independent study would consult regularly with a teacher of English about their work. Carrels for individual study, conference rooms, and a variety of reference materials are provided in the school library, which also serves as headquarters for the quest program supervisor. The student honors programs, and to a lesser extent, those in advanced and regular English, appeared to observers to be engaged largely in literary study and the study of composition. Pupils in basic English concentrated almost exclusively on directed and individual reading. Although observers found special efforts being made both for the honors groups (in depth study of literature) and the basic sections (in reading), they reported classwork for regular and advanced groups, the middle sections,

to be indistinguishable from that in any conventional English program. (The Melbourne Plan has already been published.)²

During the project observers' visit, English students engaged in "quest" projects seemed not visibly engaged in any work related to English. Because only thirty pupils in the school were at that time enrolled in such programs--a number deliberately restricted to the very superior--a commentary on this aspect of the Melbourne Plan would seem inappropriate. However, it seemed clear that one major advantage to the general program was the flexible planning it provided a department for students in extreme groups, the severely retarded or very advanced. Perhaps, because much of the experimentation had programs for these two groups, both the teachers and principals seemed more pleased with the programs developing for such students than with English programs for the large middle sections.

One problem unique to the Melbourne Plan and others patterned on its model seems to create difficulty for all but the most widely-read teachers. Because each class enrolls first-year, second-year, and third-year students, the content, particularly literary content, cannot be repeated from semester to semester. Thus, throughout the school, the program is organized in three-year cycles, emphasizing American literature, English literature, and world literature only once every three years. The plan thus easily avoids problems in duplication and repetition, especially of literary content, but it also seems to breed superficiality. A teacher who presents American literature one year must stress English literature the next. Variety and change is commendable in any program--one need only observe some teachers presenting "Loveliest of Trees" for the one hundredth time to discover some

²B. E. Brown, The Non-Graded High School (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, 1964).

of the effects of monotony and routine--but most teachers profit considerably from restudying and reteaching major works of literature. A teacher who comes to "The Rime of the Ancient Mariner" or Chekhov's "The Bet" or Hawthorne's The Scarlet Letter only every fourth year is not likely to develop the sharpness of insight of one who continually restudies and reteaches certain selected works and profits from errors in teaching. Few teachers will admit satisfaction with their treatment in the classroom of any major work when they present it for the first time. Melbourne's plan seems to achieve flexibility in student grouping at the expense of careful planning and study. Only in four regular sections, where teachers were independently developing units on literary genre and planning a class exchange through the year to teach their specialities, did staff members seem even slightly aware of the unique difficulties which the three-year teaching cycle imposed on instruction.

A different approach to ungraded teaching was observed in one western school, where once students had passed two specified courses in communications, all English classes were elective. A wide variety of choices was offered in this school, the only requirement being that of six electives. Each student was asked to select at least one course in composition (rhetoric, grammar, creative writing). The basic communication courses provided a review of elementary skills in writing, reading, and speaking; students scoring sufficiently high scores on placement examinations were exempted from the requirement and could elect eight different semesters in English. Thus, in effect, the less able students were programed for a year into these basic courses (and on occasion, as the department chairman noted, it was for more than a year if they had not achieved sufficient competence). From the beginning of his high school career, the able English student could elect from a variety of non-graded English classes.

A third approach to ungraded programing identified by project observers was a series of ungraded offerings for gifted or honors students extending over the entire high school program and, in some instances, reaching down to the junior high school.

The most conventional of the programs provided only a single class composed of first, second, and third year pupils; the most experimental released such students into ungraded programs involving art, social studies, and other subjects as well as English. Some involved college or university instructors from nearby institutions, and a few even encouraged able students to enroll for credit courses in local colleges as early as their sophomore year. Like the Melbourne Plan, most of these programs managed to avoid repetition in content and emphases only by adopting a three-year cycle of instruction. They, too, then achieved the flexibility of ungraded placement by sacrificing opportunities to achieve a planned sequence in concept development. Where a student enrolled in such a program encountered any particular idea about language or literature seemed to depend entirely on the year when he entered the program.

English by Choice

Related to non-grading in the effect it achieves, but basically different in purpose, are programs permitting students, with appropriate advice from teachers and counselors, to elect the English classes which they need and want. In the most extreme programs visited by project observers, some thirty-six separate options were open to students, ranging from composition, speech, and grammar review to structural linguistics, poetry, American folklore, Shakespeare, and nineteenth century British novel. What is more, in one school, albeit not in all where variations of "English by Choice" had been instituted, the options were open to students every nine

weeks, or every quarter of the academic year, propelling the administration and student advisers into what seemed to observers an almost continuous nightmare of scheduling. Indeed, the school prided itself in opening sufficient sections of every subject to meet all student requests. If three classes in structural linguistics were demanded, three there would be.

Programs of this kind emphasize the importance of student interests and needs more than the integrity of subject matter. They seem sometimes to carry to an extreme the assumption that young people will group themselves in accordance with their unique needs. To some extent this did seem to be characteristic of some programs, and observers were pleased to discover in one school that three times as many students had elected Shakespeare as had signed up for contemporary fiction. On the other hand, more guidance concerning the purpose of each offering seems to be required than harassed teachers and counselors were able to provide. To the observers, students seemed continually to be registering for courses for which they lacked adequate preparation.

A second problem is the devisiveness of this approach to curricular organization. Its great stress on separate courses seems to force teachers to prepare unique offerings, many of which seem patterned on the college course of which the teacher may have been particularly fond. Indeed, the very array of specialized offerings presented in one school--Contemporary Fiction, Early Nineteenth Century Novel, Public Speaking, Shakespeare I, Shakespeare II, etc.--resembled nothing quite so much as the schedule issued by an institution of higher education. The wisdom of exclusively devoting even nine weeks of secondary school teaching to a separate course in Structural Linguistics or Nineteenth Century Poetry was questioned by all project observers, stunned at the underlying assumption that all

subject matter in English is equal in value, that no sequence or pattern in study is desirable, that students be permitted to select courses of such varying content and purpose with almost complete freedom.

Still the enthusiasm of teachers and students for the program was one of its dominant characteristics. Perhaps, as programs like "English by Choice" continue to develop, some ways can be found to overcome some of the problems manifest in present operations.

Frequent Resectioning

If a major administrative problem in programs offering "English by Choice" is the resectioning of students every semester or half-semester, such problems are only intensified in schools where pupils are regrouped more frequently. Some faculties, in their determination to achieve flexible instruction to meet individual needs, undertake regrouping far more frequently. In one school, students were resectioned no less than every two or three weeks, at which time the program of instruction for each section was replanned. Largely because the department was a small one, consisting of only five English teachers, its members were able to work as a single team. Frequent conferences were devoted to planning what to teach at every grade level, as there was no organized course of study or instructional guide. Regrettably, however, the department seemed committed to resectioning all students at all levels and at all periods at least once every three weeks. Immediately before each reshuffling, each member of the department would explain to all students, assembled in a large auditorium, what he planned to teach during the next three-week interval. One teacher might indicate he wished to present Huckleberry Finn, another to teach business letters. The choices were designed to satisfy the diversity of interest and problems represented in the student body, and the students, with some advice from

teachers, were provided the opportunity to choose their assignments for each three-week period.

The plan is not without merit, for it offers teachers an opportunity to stress their specialities. Those who were competent to teach reading developed lessons stressing such skills; those interested in composition were able to work in this particular area. The plan also provided a way of grouping pupils for particularly needed instruction.

But as viewed in operation in one school, the approach had far more disadvantages than not. English became fragmented to the point where it lacked continuity. Discipline was lax and was deteriorating, largely because few teachers even seemed to know the students' names, much less their special problems in learning. So brief were the three-week intervals of instruction in each class as to violate important opportunities for developing basic teacher-learner relationships. Change for the sake of change seemed to be the primary concern of all participating in the program. Continuous development of skills in writing, reading, and discussion, essential in all strong English programs, seemed shattered by each three-week interruption, much as they were found to be neglected to a lesser extent in the nine-week "English by Choice" program described above. Indeed, in few schools visited by project observers did the overall quality of English teaching seem as low.

Yet the essential purpose of the regrouping--to accommodate individual interests--seems entirely commendable. A more experienced staff would surely have foreseen and overcome some of the problems noted. (The principal of the school informed observers that two highly qualified English teachers had left the year before as a result of disagreement over changes in the program. It is small wonder that first rate teachers would decline to

associate themselves with the sham presently passing for English in the school!) Perhaps less frequent regrouping would solve problems, or perhaps students could continue with one teacher for three days each week, but be assigned to another for specialized instruction on the other two. Whatever the ultimate answer, it seemed clear to project observers that purpose, perspective, and reasonable control of student learning in English can easily be lost if adequate provision is not made for continuity in learning and for developing basic pupil-teacher relationships.

The involvement of exceptional numbers of young, inexperienced, and sometimes ill-prepared teachers of English in many of the experimental programs with flexible student grouping was apparent to observers who visited more than one school. Some administrators clearly admitted their preference for young "uncommitted" teachers, rather than for "inflexible," older hands. Undoubtedly, beginning teachers, who lack tenure, security, and sometimes a strongly entrenched philosophy of education, are more amenable to administrators' suggestions to bring about curriculum change. Yet to project observers, some of the superficiality of teaching observed in these experimental programs seemed less a reflection of the soundness of the new approaches than of the immaturity of the teachers. To what extent the teaching problems might have been overcome by teachers with much experience, no observer could say. Several observers did admit sympathy for teachers who had purportedly departed from the schools in protest against the direction in which the experimental programs were moving; in several cases, project staff members suspected that school administrators, far more interested in "change" than in quality English, deliberately selected pliable teachers whose very lack of knowledge of the subject proved to be an asset in new programs. Regrettable as it may be, few schools embarked upon

experimental programs seem to be able to bring together successfully those who best know English with those who would create new patterns of grouping for young people in our schools. Until more subject specialists and learning and teaching specialists are involved immediately and basically in reconstructing new programs, permanent progress is not likely to be achieved.

Programs in the Humanities

One substantial change in the content of English programs is the increasing attention being given to programs in the humanities. In 20 percent of all schools in the Study, including the basic 116 schools, such programs or courses had already been introduced--and were particularly widespread in the East, the Middle Atlantic States, the Midwest (near Chicago), and the Far West. Representing many of the better programs of the country, schools in these areas are more alert to curriculum changes than are other American high schools. Still, discussion of the "whys" and "wherefore's" of school humanities programs is a special problem confronting high school English teachers today and thus demands separate discussion. Of the courses labeled as humanities, some dealt with religion, some included genetics, and others treated such diverse topics as psychology, film study, American history, art, ballet, architecture, human relations, and "a way of thinking," whatever this may be.

Most humanities programs involve a fusion of literary study with the study of art, architecture, music, philosophy, and sometimes history. The increase in experimental courses and programs seems related to the rise in national concern over the state of the humanities. The John Hay Fellows program, the Great Books program of Mortimer Adler, the humanities film series initiated by Floyd Rinker and the Commission for the Humanities on Television (since continued independently by Encyclopedia Britannica Films),

the rise in the study of film as art--these developments have created an awareness among teachers of English. With the report of the Commission on the Humanities and the establishment of the National Endowment for the Humanities in 1965, such developments seem likely to continue. What, then, are the characteristics of present pilot programs in the humanities as viewed in schools of the Study? Four approaches appear to be dominant.

1. The Culture Epoch Approach. This type of humanities program is organized around the great cultural periods of humane endeavor: classic Greece and Rome, the medieval feudal period, the Renaissance, the Enlightenment. Through the study of social, intellectual, and cultural history, the student is introduced to great moments in human history. At their best, such studies attempt to free students from the insularity of modern time and space and the restrictions of their immediate environment. Even though courses are organized around significant cultural periods, the emphasis in instruction tends to be less on political history than on cultural and intellectual values. Art and architecture, literature, and especially music, provide an introduction to man's expression of ideas and ideals. Thus, the study of the Renaissance, for example, may involve the reading of selections from Machiavelli's The Prince, Cellini's Autobiography, a Petrarchan sonnet or two, as well as paintings by Leonardo and sculpture by Michaelangelo. Such interdisciplinary offerings are particularly conducive to team teaching and team planning involving instructors from English, history, music, and art. The magnificent resources supplied by the humanities film series of Encyclopedia Britannica Films encourages large group presentation. A way around such over-reliance on "presentation" was discovered in one school where a special resource room for a course on American Civilization has been established so that students may spend a

portion of a two-hour time block in quietly studying prints, viewing slides, or listening to recordings. Yet it seems fair to say that where such courses are serving basic instructional ends--at least in literature--ways must be found to provide needed small group study of individual literary texts. The Oedipus Rex or the essays of Montagne need to be explored under careful teacher guidance. Project observers expressed strong feelings that the superficial introduction to literature, as to much expression in art and music, serves not at all to accent the students' perception of the humanities. If tough, informed, insightful minds are needed in any courses in our schools, they are needed first in interdisciplinary humanities offerings.

In a majority of schools visited, such courses are introduced during the final years of high school to college bound boys and girls. Few attempts seem yet to be made to provide such rich, interdisciplinary study for general students, who would seem most to deserve attention in this area. Present liberal arts requirements will see that college bound students do not miss high level, humanistic experiences, but such offerings are seldom considered for the non-college bound. In two schools, only, did observers find organized programs in the humanities for non-college students. Is not more exploration in English, history, music, and art of this kind needed?

2. The Great Themes Approach. Similar in purpose to the culture epoch approach, the great themes approach focuses the attention on the most profound and humane questions of time; e.g., Man's Response to Nature, The Nature of Beauty, Fate, and Free Will. Such thematically-centered studies need not be confined to a single age or area but may range across continents and centuries to include those documents which best illuminate the ideas at hand. Students have been known to follow the study of Euripides' Electra with Robert Penn Warren's All the King's Men, to move

from Donne's "Meditation" to Stevenson's "Eldorado" and O'Neill's Emperor Jones.

Nor need media other than literature be excluded. At one school, for instance, readers studying "Man as a Creature with Potential for Growth," read Helen Keller's Three Days to See, then viewed Robert Flaherty's magnificent Nanook of the North. Both illuminate the theme on man's capacity to "become," rather than his willingness to "be."³

Whatever the dangers and limitations of thematic approach--superficiality, distortion of the essential nature of literary texts--it is clear that such units can provide an exciting framework for organizing classroom study.

3. The Multi-Media Approach. Still another emphasis in humanities courses involving literature is the approach which emphasizes the creative process and the methods and views of the artist. In such instruction, students concern themselves less with the products as aesthetic expressions --the cathedral, concerto, or literary document--than with the manner and method of the artist--his point of view, voice, use of tone and timbre, exploration of contrast--which is either direct or implied. Thus, students come to understand better the interrelationship of form and structure in all art and the points of contrast in purpose and intent between poet and painter, between musician and novelist.

One of the best organized programs of this kind is the elective "Allied Arts" course developed by the state of Missouri and now taught in a number of schools throughout the state.⁴ Another exists in a New England

³ See the discussion of this program by Miriam B. Goldstein and Edward C. Martin in "Humanistic Education for the General Student," The English Leaflet, LXIII, 3 (Fall 1964), 11.

⁴ The Allied Arts (Columbia, Mo.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1963).

school visited by project observers, where students do such things as study Picasso's Guernica in conjunction with Wilder's The Skin of Our Teeth, then visit such outside centers as the Metropolitan Museum of Art, the Yale Art Gallery and Rare Book Library, and the Shakespearean Playhouse at Stratford.⁵

Related are the attempts of the new precollege centers of Educational Services Incorporated to introduce students to original writings by creative artists in various disciplines to show the creative mind at work. Thus young people first review the diaries, journals, letters, notebooks, and autobiographies of men like Vincent Van Gogh or Charles Darwin, and then examine the finished product--the poem, painting, scientific law, or aesthetic principle. The result seems to be a gradual awakening of student awareness to the nature of creativity in art.⁶

4. The Great Works Approach. Still another basic approach to provide humanistic content in literature are the courses based on the reading and study of major texts. Influenced on the one hand by the work of Mortimer Adler and on the other by the emphasis on textual reading of the Advanced Placement Programs, such programs provide students with an introduction to a wide range of first rate literary selections of many kinds and countries--a Greek tragedy, surely, and perhaps Plato's Republic as well; an introduction to medieval thought, perhaps through study of a romance like "Tristan and Iseult" and an acceptable Canterbury Tale; a Shakespearean play or two; a few essays by Bacon, Voltaire, and Rousseau; some French and Russian novelists, certainly Hugo and Dostoyevsky, if not Balzac and Tolstoy;

⁵Evelyn M. Copeland, "There Was a Child Went Forth," English Journal, 54, 3 (March 1963), 182-184.

⁶Lettie J. Austin, "Teaching English at the Precollege Centers," ESI Quarterly Report (Summer-Fall, 1965), pp. 179-181.

Swift's Gulliver's Travels, sometimes in its entirety; some nineteenth century non-fiction(perhaps, Carlyle for his views of history as the study of great men); Chekhov and Ibsen, certainly, among the major playwrights of the past century; and possibly one modern masterpiece--The Great Gatsby or a Faulkner or Hemingway novel.

This is a tall order and one which is apt to involve the reading and study of literature in broadest dimension. Indeed, its very weakness becomes clear as this representative canon is discussed. There is too much of the "too great," and teachers worry lest their reach so exceed their grasp that nothing but superficiality remains. Some teachers even deliberately include philosophical or scientific works: John Stuart Mill's "On Liberty," Thomas Hobbes' "Leviathan," or even Ruth Benedict's Patterns of Culture. Gone is the concern with historical and cultural background long associated with the largely discredited studies of the history of English literature, although students still must learn sufficiently about each culture to understand the work at hand. Rather, the emphasis now is placed on the reading and study of the structure and content of separate texts, each selected with considerable care. And here, as with all good teaching of literature, the stress is placed on the methods and approaches involved in analyzing a text with understanding.

The great works approach need not be confined to a single year or a single course. Seldom labeled as courses in humanities, such offerings in literature nevertheless reflect the humanistic point of view at its strongest. In some schools visited, such a textual approach is stressed in all offerings for advanced placement students in English beyond grade 8. Observers described one program as built around the study of selected great works of literature, with three weeks devoted to the study of each work--the first for careful reading, the next two for writing and discussion. In one

state of Washington school, a secondary teacher last year experimented with a semi-weekly thirty-minute humanities program with selected sixth grade students. The boys and girls read and studied children's classics and also the nature of creativity in writing.

Some would say that such programs are not humanities courses at all, but merely regular literature courses. If so, may there be more of them. In their emphasis on the ideals and values expressed by each work in their concern with how the artist expresses, perceives, and celebrates experience, in their concentration on the uniqueness of expression, they are humanistic in the best sense. They seek to introduce students to the great ideas of all time expressed in their most permanent form. Such programs are important in any democratic society. As the late James J. Lynch was fond of saying, "Who can think the thoughts of Lincoln unless he is nourished on the same food?"

There is much to be said in favor of the instruction which introduces young people to great human achievement. Yet there is much with which to concern ourselves. By attempting to induce a premature sophistication with respect to literary works, teachers may do little more than kindle resentment against all art. It is true that no single course may cover all centuries and, as well, all disciplines. In a recent critique of many such English programs, John Searles warns that "The concept of selectivity as opposed to that of coverage" must govern both the scope of the curriculum in the humanities and the details selected for presentation.⁷ Unless some such principle rigorously governs instruction, such courses may tend to become little more than "a culture bath," a "wallowing in the luxuriousness" of literature and music. Searles is not alone in his warning. In the New

⁷ John R. Searles, "Are Humanities Programs the Answer?" English Journal, 54, 3 (March 1965), 175-181.

England English Leaflet, Fred Stocking recently reviewed present school offerings and advanced what he called four strong opinions concerning the planning of such courses. Each is worth considering carefully:

1. There is no such thing as an ideal course in the humanities for high school students: an excellent course might be designed in any of a dozen different ways, and the best course for any school exploits the particular talents which are available.
2. The better courses are usually taught by two or more teachers--one from music or art, one from literature, one from history, for instance. But unless there happens to be two or more teachers who share an exuberant desire to work together in such a course, a single energetic and enthusiastic teacher, with diverse interests and a mastery of several disciplines, might well be preferable.
3. The best courses awaken that kind of interest in the humanities which is based on depth of understanding rather than on a glib familiarity with names and titles, or on the social fun of field trips. That is, good courses never make any attempt at coverage. One novel, one painting, and one opera out of the middle of the 19th century might well provide more than enough material for a semester.
4. The goal of such a course should be: first, to arouse interest in the arts as providing experiences valuable for their own sake; second, to show that an art work acquired deeper meaning when placed in its historical context; and third, to make clear that a full understanding of--and delight in--any one of the arts requires the eventual mastery of difficult, complicated, and highly rewarding intellectual disciplines.⁸

But offerings in the humanities need not fall prey to every snare if adequate thought and sufficient preparation go into their preparation, if unscholarly and misleading relationships are not insisted upon, if the external trappings of whatever form of class organization are not permitted to interfere with the responses of the student to the individual literary work.

In any program, however, literature must remain central, because of the insight it offers a child concerning the artist's role in society and

⁸Fred H. Stocking, "High School Humanities Courses: Some Reservations and Warning," The English Leaflet, LXIII, 5 (Fall 1965), 37-38.

because of the sensitizing, humanizing influence it provides that is essential to a liberal education. Perhaps no one in our time has better stated the case for literary study than the distinguished critic Northrop Frye who, in insisting on its value, directs our attention to the ultimate practicality of all of the humanities. States Frye:

It is essential for the teacher of literature, at every level, to remember that in a modern democracy a citizen participates in society mainly through his imagination. We often do not realize this until an actual event with some analogy to literary form takes place; but surely we do not need to wait for a president to be assassinated before we can understand what a tragedy is and what it can do in creating a community of response. Literature, however, gives us not only a means of understanding, but a power to fight. All around us is a society which demands that we adjust or come to terms with it, and what that society presents to us is a social mythology. Advertising, propaganda, the speeches of politicians, popular books and magazines, the clichés of rumor, all have their own kind of pastoral myths, quest myths, hero myths, sacrificial myths, and nothing will drive these shoddy constructs out of the mind except the genuine forms of the same thing. We all know how important the reason is in an irrational world, but the imagination, in a society of perverted imagination, is far more essential in making us understand that the phantasmagoria of current events is not real society, but only the transient appearance of real society. Real society, the total body of what humanity has done and can do is revealed to us only by the arts and sciences; nothing but the imagination can apprehend that reality as a whole, and nothing but literature in a culture as verbal as ours, can train the imagination to fight for the sanity and dignity of mankind.⁹

A Cautionary Note on Change in English

Strong teaching of English demands teachers who know their subject and know their students. In the best experimental programs, as in all good English programs, teachers seldom lose sight of their fundamental responsibilities. When a strong intellectual interest in the study of literature, composition, language, and the supporting skills, is paramount in a program, innovative practices can spur a faculty to even more efficient learning. But as the reports of the Study make clear, too

⁹Northrop Frye, "Elementary Teaching and Elemental Scholarship," PMLA, LXXIX, 2 (May 1964), 18.

often change is encouraged and directed by administrators and supervisors who, in their concern for innovation and administrative arrangements, forget both the subject and the student. Weak teachers, uncertain of their subject and their teaching responsibility, seem too often swayed by such influences. Strong teachers, albeit sometimes overly resistant to change in method of approach, are not likely to lose perspective. Too much of the promise of many experimental programs visited has been lost because experienced, well-prepared teachers have not involved themselves in the programs. Too much of the leadership in curriculum innovation in English, if these nineteen schools are representative, seems to be coming less from teachers and supervisors of English than from well-meaning administrators who lack insight into the nature of the subject. Only as classroom leaders in English teaching join with leaders in educational administration, in exploring the possibilities and problems of innovative practices in English, are substantial gains likely to be made. In only a few instances in this study were such cooperative efforts obvious to project observers.

The Study revealed numerous potential contributions of experimental development. The enthusiasm of both teachers and students, even when it seemed misdirected, is widely characteristic of innovation. Indeed, the project observer who commented that "staff members seem to be stimulated to work at 150 percent of capacity" was merely commenting on a phenomenon noted by observers in even the most inadequate programs. But without long range results, without greater concern for student and subject, how long can such enthusiasm continue? In more than a few programs, what one observer called the "pseudo-intellectual, not anti-intellectual teaching" was already having telling effects in terms of disorganized student behavior and confused reactions from teaching. No matter how impressively intricate the

restructuring of classes, a program which causes an experienced college observer to wince at the "wholesale talking about ideas, wholesale digestion of books, and little careful analysis" is a program destined for difficulty.

The importance of careful planning and of intelligent inservice education of teachers engaged in experimental work was illustrated again and again. Summer workshops, scheduled conference time, leadership teams, consultant help, and thoughtful assistance of many kinds are important in providing support for teachers. Special secretarial help is mandatory where frequent reorganization of student and teacher schedules is characteristic. Newly designed classrooms, extensive school and classroom library resources, needed audio-visual equipment--these seem to be essential conditions. Another essential condition is a reasonable reduction in teaching load. Despite some contrary beliefs, most teachers engaged in such teaching admit that the demands on preparation time are far greater than conventional teaching. Those seeking inexpensive ways of solving the class load problem in English will not find it among these innovative practices. Those seeking more efficient methods of teaching English may well promote greater inefficiency unless they provide the necessary conditions.

Clearly the experimental programs visited in this study provide no easy way of remedying the ills of English teaching in our schools. Staff members were disappointed to find so few programs which even approached the quality of the better programs studied among the original schools. But confusion and uncertainty as well as error in judgment are likely to be characteristic of all innovation in education. Most programs described here had been in operation for only two or three years, so to compare them in all respects with the better established programs, developed over a

decade or two, would seem patently unfair. Hidden within many of the programs is the germ of an idea which, carefully attempted, developed, and perfected, may greatly improve more conservative programs. Schools need to remember that this is the function of all innovation. But those schools involved directly and fully in launching innovations need even more to recall that sound change seldom comes as revolution but as evolution. Many of the sound practices evolved during past decades will continue to exert an important and necessary influence on English teaching. In moving toward improved teaching, even experimental teaching, schools need worry lest they throw out the baby with the bathwater. The best new programs of the future will surely represent a union of the best of the English teaching tradition, with its concern for student and subject, with the best of the newer practices.

CHAPTER XV

SUMMARY AND FINAL OBSERVATIONS

A study as complex and varied as this analysis of the teaching of English in 158 American high schools cannot be easily summarized. In one sense, the report consists of a series of separate studies of aspects of the teaching of English, each summarized in a separate chapter. But early in the project, twelve hypotheses were advanced to guide the direction of the project. A summary of basic findings with respect to each of these anticipated findings provides opportunity to restate some of the major conclusions.

Hypothesis No. 1: English teachers will be well prepared in English, will be active in professional associations, and will make use of opportunities for continuing their education through inservice training, sabbatical leave programs, or extension school services.

This hypothesis has been conclusively supported by the findings which demonstrate clearly that the teachers in the Study schools are better prepared than teachers nationally, that the Study teachers are far more active professionally, and that they have more opportunities for inservice education, including stipends for study and sabbatical leaves. (See the discussion in Chapter II.) of 130 outstanding teachers in project schools identified by staff observers indicates their unique superiority in all characteristics named above (Chapter XI).

Hypothesis No. 2: Literature programs will not be confined to a single anthology, but there will be evidence of wide reading of many kinds of good books, such as library withdrawals, ample classroom libraries, and guided individual reading programs. Books will not only be prevalent but accessible.

Strong interest of the young people in these schools in reading for study purposes and in personal reading is clearly indicated in the findings. Whether English programs stimulate such interest or whether it results from the overall academic interest of students and communities is far less certain. At any rate one characteristic of English programs from which outstanding English students graduate appears to be both the extent and quality of the reading of students (Chapter IX). A second characteristic is clearly a high degree of emphasis on literature in classroom study, an emphasis which may appear to those concerned about imbalance to be a weakness, but which in fact may not only stimulate much of the reading but contribute to an expansion of interest, ideas, and sensitivity to language (Chapter III). Although some evidence indicates a decline in teacher reliance on the literary anthology as the sole basis for classroom instruction in literature, the anthology continues to find adherents. Classroom libraries are available in some of the stronger programs, but by no means are they characteristic of the typical classroom visited by project observers (Chapter IV). And despite findings indicating a close relationship between the size and quality of the school library and student use of its facilities, evidence was found of student rejection of school libraries, of their limited access to library holdings, and of their preference for book collections available in public libraries (Chapter IX). It seems appropriate to conclude that interest in literature and in books is characteristic of the schools in the Study, but that many programs experienced difficulty in making an adequate supply of worthwhile books available to students.

Hypothesis No. 3: There will be a perceptible and good "intellectual climate" in all aspects of the school. More emphasis will be placed on

ideas and processes of thought than on rote learning.

An assessment of "intellectual climate" proved difficult for project staff observers. Although observer reports indicated some awareness of sound attitudes toward learning in most of the schools, direct evidence was difficult to obtain. Yet the quality of the building principal and his interest in academic values was rated first by staff observers as their dominant impression of these schools, with the tradition of learning in the school and the nature of students and the community listed thereafter (Chapter III). The climate of work in departments of English also impressed observers. Moreover, students themselves in these schools indicated greater concern with academic success than did other groups with which they were compared (Chapter IX). Although the evidence is tenuous, it tends to support the hypothesis.

Hypothesis No. 4: Teachers will provide not only for frequent writing experience, but for meaningful motivation, for careful correction of writing and thinking, and for supervised revision of papers.

Frequent and varied composition experiences, rather than experiences restricted, say, to analytical or expository writing, are characteristic of most schools in the Study and seem supported by the teachers themselves. Much attention is given to student motivation. However, the majority of teachers in these schools devote less careful attention to paper correction than project observers had hoped, and what attention is devoted seems rarely designed to teach thinking and writing. Moreover, the assessment of programs for teaching composition suggests that far more time needs to be spent on instruction in rhetoric and the processes of writing, somewhat less time on merely providing writing experiences (Chapter V).

Hypothesis No. 5: Schools will reveal variety in methods and materials

of instruction for different groups of students. Teachers will have considerable latitude in choosing materials of instruction. There will be evidence of experimentation and innovation in the kinds of instruction.

The hypothesis can be supported only partially by evidence accumulated in the Study. A variety of materials are used in the classrooms, especially in classes for college preparatory students. The methods or classroom approaches used by teachers were somewhat less varied than observers anticipated. Especially in use of discussion techniques and audio-visual aids to instruction, many teachers in the Study appear unduly restricted. In teaching slow students, less use is made of various approaches to instruction than most staff members thought desirable (Chapters III, VIII, XI). Although two-thirds of the teachers appear to have reasonable freedom to choose classroom materials, evidence of self-censorship resulting from real or imagined community pressures was reported in many areas (Chapters IX, XI). Comparatively little experimentation or innovation in kinds of instruction was discovered in the schools originally selected. However, a special study of nineteen schools engaged in such innovative change in English revealed that most experimental schools tend not to attract teachers with strong subject-matter backgrounds, nor are their English programs themselves likely to attract attention for success in achieving subject-matter goals (Chapter XIV).

Hypothesis No. 6: Language, literature, and composition will be taught in appropriate proportion, and not as separate entities. Instruction will be coordinated and sequential.

The discovery that more than half of all classroom teaching emphasizes literature was one of the major surprises of the Study. Whether such

proportions as 52 percent of class time for literature, 15.7 percent for composition, and 13.5 for language may be considered "appropriate," depends on one's perception of the nature of instruction in English. After careful study, the staff concluded that the proportions discovered may well be appropriate if teaching is of high quality, if instruction in literature is related both to language and to composition, and if the program is carefully integrated (Chapter III). Regrettably, evidence was not forthcoming to suggest that many carefully integrated programs, or even sequential programs are characteristic of most of the schools in the Study. A substantial number of carefully planned, well coordinated programs in literature and composition were reported, however (especially programs for the college bound). Virtually no sequential or soundly planned programs in language were discovered, as observers' reports indicated widespread confusion among teachers concerning both content and method in language (Chapters VI and VIII).

Hypothesis No. 7: Schools will provide comprehensive instruction in the skills of reading for all pupils and, in addition, special instruction for pupils whose needs and ability warrant more individualized procedures.

This hypothesis was disproved. Not only are sound programs in reading not characteristic of schools in the Study, but the programs observed seemed lacking in purpose, organization, and impact (Chapter VII). Moreover, most attempts to individualize instruction were concerned with programs for the academic student; the non-academic, non-college, or slow learner seldom received sufficient attention (Chapters VIII and XI). Staff members wonder whether such neglect is characteristic of all American secondary schools. It may well be that schools with good reputations in English devote so much attention to their programs for able students that they neglect offerings for

others. Surely the widespread neglect reported by observers from coast to coast should be a matter of serious professional concern.

Hypothesis No. 8: There will be in general a favorable climate for teaching as evidenced by appropriate salaries, good pupil-teacher ratios, efficient and pleasant facilities and school plant, and comparative freedom from burdensome clerical or policing obligations. Teachers will reflect positive attitudes toward teaching at all levels and administrators will respect the professional integrity of their teachers. Though teachers will vary in their methods and approaches to teaching, there will be interaction and a considerable degree of unanimity in their efforts to deal with common problems.

A generally favorable climate was reported in most schools and ranked high in observer's analyses of English departments. Slightly lower pupil-teacher ratios were reported than in most schools, and few teachers expressed concern about salaries (Chapter II). In interviews, however, many complained about lack of administrative support and the excessive burden of student paper corrections. Still, during the departmental interview, when asked to compare teaching conditions with those in other schools they had known, most teachers admitted the desirability of their present circumstances (Chapter III). In those schools considered superior by project observers, interaction within the English faculty was encouraged, often through the use of common preparation periods or a departmental center where teachers could regularly meet (Chapter VIII).

Hypothesis No. 9: There will be a reasonable and professional approach to the supervision of teachers. Subject-oriented supervisors will work constructively with beginning teachers and help to coordinate the entire program. Supervisors will be given considerable scope and responsibility in the hiring of new teachers and in writing the English program.

Appropriate time for such supervision will be given to the department heads. English teachers will be organized and led by a capable and resourceful chairman.

The significance of the department chairman was underscored again and again throughout the Study. District supervisors and even building principals, insofar as classroom supervision is concerned, have little direct impact on teaching practice. Where a chairman has time and responsibility to supervise classroom teaching, a strengthening of the entire program is manifest. By no means are all chairmen in the Study schools given adequate time nor do they possess the characteristics needed for strong departmental leadership, but where such conditions exist and a competent chairman is appointed, the benefits to the schools are many. The strength of the chairman was ranked third by project observers in the characteristics of Study schools; inadequacy of departmental leadership was considered first in weaknesses noted (Chapters III and VIII).

Hypothesis No. 10: Within the English department there will be some unique, dedicated teachers who enthusiastically motivate student achievement.

Without question the Study schools are characterized by the presence of outstanding teachers of English (Chapter III). Quality of the English staff was noted immediately by observers, and this quality is reflected in teacher preparation as well as teaching effectiveness (Chapter II). But teachers were not of a uniformly excellent quality; in the basic 116 schools of the Study, observers singled out 140 teachers for excellence (Chapter XI). What the staff discovered was that a small number of creative teachers on any English faculty may do much to motivate both students and fellow teachers, serving as catalysts to spark more effective and exciting teaching and thinking throughout the department than might be possible

otherwise. The impact of a small number of outstanding teachers on each English faculty seemed more responsible than any other single factor for transforming mediocre departments into faculties truly excited about the teaching of English.

Hypothesis No. 11: Schools which have strong English programs for the college bound students will also make special accommodations for the interests and abilities of terminal students. They will therefore have fewer dropouts.

Similar in concern to Hypothesis No. 7, this hypothesis also must be rejected. Indeed, the evidence indicates clearly a lack of planned programs for the terminal student. Although some schools did report comparatively low dropout figures, observers found precious little support for the notion that the programs in English were meeting these students' interests or needs (Chapters III, VII, XI). Clearly more needs to be done in this area, and many principals and chairmen seemed aware of the problem even if they lacked the ideas and resources to find an immediate solution.

Hypothesis No. 12: The philosophy and substance of the English program will reflect the changing social and educational patterns of our times. The impact of technological innovations as they affect our society will be apparent in the content and the method of teaching English. The English curriculum will be subject to constant revaluation in the light of our changing society.

Leaders in these departments appear far more aware of changing scholarly developments in English, especially in literature and composition, than of changes in the culture which may affect the teaching of English. The lack of attention to modern media of communication, the limited use of

audio-visual materials, and the slight degree of program experimentation in the basic 116 schools of the Study seem directly contrary to the tenor of the hypothesis. In departmental and individual interviews, teachers did admit concern with such problems, but they seemed to be taking little direct action. In their concern with developing strong programs in English, the teachers may sometimes have forgotten to consider the subject in relation to the uses of language in contemporary culture (Chapters III, VIII).

These findings pertaining to the twelve hypotheses can be considered only a partial summary of results of the Study. Other data, observations, and inferences emerge in the discussion of particular topics. Complex and varied as they sometimes are, the findings suggest the characteristics of English programs today which seem to be achieving good results. They also indicate that many of these programs are far less strong than they could be. Although the 158 schools are by no means typical of all American high schools, the problems they face in teaching English are not dissimilar to problems encountered everywhere. In describing some of the successes of these selected schools, as well as some of the difficulties yet to be overcome, the investigators believe they have identified practices which can be carefully considered by any school faculty interested in improving instruction in English.

APPENDIX A

SCHOOLS COOPERATING IN THE STUDY

ALABAMA

Ensley High School
2301 Avenue J
Birmingham 8
Robert L. Pennington, Principal
Kathryn Green, Chairman

Gadsden High School
Gadsden
F. T. Dobbs, Principal
Mrs. Katherine Shamblin, Chairman

Sidney Lanier High School
1756 South Court Street
Montgomery 36104
Willis E. Glazner, Principal
Laura Johnston, Chairman

Shades Valley High School
104 Hermosa Drive
Birmingham
F. A. Peake, Principal
Dinnie May Mackey, Chairman

ARKANSAS

Camden High School
Camden
Wyley J. Elliott, Principal
Mrs. Olga E. Boles, Chairman

Magnolia High School
Magnolia
Jack Clemens, Principal
Mrs. Henry Gladney, Chairman

Pine Bluff High School
10th and Laurel Streets
Pine Bluff
Austin Glenn, Principal
Mrs. Thelma Collie, Chairman
(formerly Josephine Martin)

ARIZONA

Rincon High School
422 N. Arcadia Blvd.
Tucson
Hanley R. Slagle, Principal
Mrs. Jean Christison, Chairman

CALIFORNIA

Carpinteria High School
Carpinteria
Robert C. Wooldridge, Principal
Marjorie Holmes, Chairman

Cubberley Senior High School
4000 Middlefield Road
Palo Alto
Scott D. Thomson, Principal
Barney Tanner, Chairman

El Camino High School
4300 El Camino Avenue
Sacramento 21
A. D. Abbott, Principal
Mrs. Iris Nordberg, Chairman

Fremont High School
P. O. Box 215
Sunnyvale
Ralph F. Kling, Principal
Don Sherlock, Chairman

George Washington High School
600--32nd Avenue
San Francisco 21
Ruth N. Adams, Principal
Mrs. Melanie C. Ainsworth, Chairman

Hollywood High School
1521 N. Highland Avenue
Hollywood 90028
Dr. Charles E. Sutcliffe, Principal
Mrs. Jane M. Cushman, Chairman

Mira-Costa High School
701 S. Peck Avenue
Manhattan Beach
Lloyd W. Waller, Principal
Mrs. Arabelle Stubbe, Chairman

Redlands High School
Redlands
Robert G. Campbell, Principal
Mrs. Catherine C. Dunn, Chairman

CALIFORNIA (continued)

San Leandro High School
2200 Bancroft
San Leandro
John C. Roberts, Principal
Mrs. Janet Cotter, Chairman

COLORADO

Alameda High School
Lakewood
Wendall Wilson, Principal
Mrs. DeFazio, Chairman

Arvada West High School
11325 Allendale Drive
Arvada
Arthur Ohanian, Principal
Harry Parrat, Chairman

Bear Creek High School
3490 S. Kipling
Morrison
William A. Mitchell, Principal
Mrs. Marguerite Townsend, Chairman

East High School
1545 Detroit Street
Denver 6
Robert P. Colwell, Principal
John H. Zumwinkel, Chairman

Lakewood High School
Lakewood
J. Vernon Heaston, Principal
Charles McLain, Chairman

Wasson High School
2115 Afton Way
Colorado Springs 80909
W. H. Preston, Principal
Frances E. Wallingford, Chairman

CONNECTICUT

Andrew Warde High School
Melville Avenue
Fairfield
Kenneth Petersen, Principal
Evelyn M. Copeland, Supervisor

DELAWARE

Mount Pleasant High School
Washington St. Exit & Marsh Rd.
Wilmington 19809
Charles H. Bomboy, Principal
Mrs. Margaret P. Wingo, Chairman

FLORIDA

Melbourne High School
1050 Bacock Street
Melbourne
B. Frank Brown, Principal
Barbara Bixby, Chairman

Miami Edison Senior High School
Miami
William Duncan, Principal
Mrs. Frances Grizzle, Chairman

Nova High School
3600 S. W. 70th Avenue
Fort Lauderdale
Arthur B. Wolfe, Director
Richard C. Whiting, Language Arts
Coordinator

Robert E. Lee Senior High School
Jacksonville
Warren Kirkham, Principal
Mrs. Kathleen Vinson, Chairman

Stranahan High School
1800 Southwest Fifth Place
Fort Lauderdale 33304
Kenneth Haun, Principal
Mrs. Mildred S. Miller, Chairman

HAWAII

Punahou Academy
Honolulu 96822
Walter L. Curtin, Principal
Marjorie Dunstan, Chairman

IDAHO

Idaho Falls Senior High School
601 S. Holmes Avenue
Idaho Falls
Glenn M. Manion, Principal
Mrs. Marilla Gimmett, Chairman

IDAHO (continued)

Pocatello High School
325 N. Arthur
Pocatello
C. H. Teuscher, Principal
Helene McAlister, Chairman

ILLINOIS

Bowen High School
2710 East 89th Street
Chicago
Dr. Lorraine Sullivan, Principal
Mrs. Muriel Miller, Chairman

Danville High School
Fairchild at Jackson
Danville
E. D. Milhon, Principal
John C. Sanders, Chairman

Eisenhower High School
1200 16th Street
Decatur
Murvil Barnes, Principal
Norman L. Stewart, Chairman

Evanston Township High School
1600 Dodge Avenue
Evanston
Dr. L. S. Michael, Principal
Clarence W. Hach, Chairman

Highland Park High School
433 Vine Street
Highland Park
C. S. Stunkel, Principal
William W. Guthrie, Chairman

Lakeview High School
1001 Brush College Road
Decatur
William W. Fromm, Principal
Virginia Casey, Chairman

The Mother McAuley Liberal Arts
High School
3737 West 99th Street
Chicago 42
Sr. Mary Inviolata, RSM, Principal
Sr. Mary Brian, RSM, Chairman

New Trier Township High School
Winnetka
Dr. William H. Cornog, Principal
R. Stanley Peterson, Chairman

Ridgewood High School
7500 W. Montrose
Norridge
Eugene Howard, Principal
Beecham Robinson, Chairman

St. Ignatius High School
1076 West Roosevelt Road
Chicago
Fr. Donald O. Nastold, SJ, Principal
Richard Bollman, Chairman

INDIANA

Arsenal Technical High School
1500 E. Michigan Street
Indianapolis 46205
Howard L. Longshore, Principal
Irene Rhodes, Chairman

Broad Ripple High School
1115 Broad Ripple Avenue
Indianapolis 46220
J. Fred Murphy, Principal
Mrs. Ruth B. Herin, Chairman

Culver Military Academy
Culver
Ernest B. Benson, Dean
A. G. Hughes, Chairman

James Whitcomb Riley High School
405 E. Ewing Avenue
South Bend
Howard Crouse, Principal
Edith L. Steele, Chairman

John Adams High School
808 S. Twyckenham Drive
South Bend
Russell Rothermel, Principal
Richard Shurr, Chairman

Lew Wallace High School
415 W. 45th Avenue
Gary
D. T. Torreson, Principal
Evelyn A. Parnell, Chairman

INDIANA (continued)

Penn-Knox High School
 Pennville
 Roscoe Sharp, Principal
 Tom Paxton and Jim Mallers, Co-Chairmen

Shortridge High School
 3401 N. Meridan Street
 Indianapolis 46207
 Robert J. Shultz, Principal
 Mildred Foster, Chairman

Thomas Carr Howe High School
 500 Julian Avenue
 Indianapolis
 Thomas Stirling, Principal
 Steward S. Craig, Chairman

South Side High School
 3500 Calhoun
 Fort Wayne
 J. E. Weicker, Principal
 Ronald L. Gersmehl, Chairman

IOWA

Burlington High School
 University Place
 Leroy Pease, Principal
 Mrs. Anna Mae Lowther, Chairman

Central High School
 1212 Nebraska Street
 Sioux City 51105
 Harold Stevens, Principal
 Ruth Tarvin, Chairman

Ottumwa High School
 College and Second Streets
 Ottumwa
 Lewis E. Dye, Principal
 J. J. Anderson, Chairman

KANSAS

Pittsburg Senior High School
 1310 N. Broadway
 Pittsburg
 John L. England, Principal
 Charles Yoos, Director of Secondary Education

LOUISIANA

Benjamin Franklin Senior High School
 719 S. Carrollton Avenue
 New Orleans 18
 Estelle Barkemeyer, Principal
 Harry C. Phelps, Jr., Chairman

Bolton High School
 Alexandria
 W. E. Pate, Principal
 Mrs. Inez Parker, Chairman

MAINE

Deering High School
 Stevens Avenue
 Portland
 Carleton L. Wiggin, Principal
 Frances Hueston, Chairman

MARYLAND

Baltimore Polytechnic Institute
 North Avenue and Calvert Street
 Baltimore 21202
 Claude Burkert, Principal
 Harold P. Resh, Chairman

Bel Air Senior High School
 Heighe Avenue
 Baltimore
 William B. Jones, Principal
 Mrs. Frances T. Long, Chairman

Bethesda-Chevy Chase High School
 Bethesda 14
 James B. Williams, Principal
 Margaret M. Casey, Chairman

Catonsville Senior High School
 Bloomsbury Avenue & Rolling Road
 Baltimore 21228
 Harvey Kreuzburg, Jr., Principal
 Howard B. Goodrich, Chairman

Montgomery Blair High School
 Wayne Avenue and Dale Drive
 Silver Spring 20907
 Richard E. Wagner, Principal
 Richard T. Pioli, Chairman

MARYLAND (continued)

Walter Johnson High School
10311 Old Georgetown Road
Rockville
Earl P. Schubert, Principal
Margaret Kauffman, Chairman

MASSACHUSETTS

Brookline High School
115 Greenough Street
Brookline 46
B. H. Holland, Principal
Trask H. Wilkinson, Chairman

Malden High School
77 Salem Street
Malden
F. Champlin Webster, Principal
Walter C. Ryan, Chairman

Newton High School
Walnut Street
Newtonville
Richard W. Mechem, Principal
Mary Irene Lanigan, Chairman

Phillips Academy
Andover
John M. Kemper, Principal
William H. Brown, Chairman

Pittsfield High School
East Street
Pittsfield
Harold E. Hennessy, Principal
Rosemary T. Haylon, Chairman

St. Mary's Girls' High School
55 Tremont Street
Lynn
Sr. Joseph Catherine, SND,
Principal
Sr. Marie Rose Julie, SND,
Chairman

MICHIGAN

Ann Arbor High School
601 W. Stadium Blvd.
Ann Arbor 11
Nicholas Schreiber, Principal
Lucille Lundgren, Chairman

Bloomfield Hills High School
Bloomfield Hills
Richard J. Spiess, Principal
Cramer Percival, Chairman

Dearborn High School
19501 W. Outer Drive
Dearborn
Robert W. Young, Principal
Mary Joan Woods, Chairman

Denby High School
12800 Kelly Road
Detroit
Irvin Wolf, Principal
Anne Marie Laird, Chairman

Southfield High School
24675 Lahser Road
Southfield
R. E. Hall, Principal
James Shippee, Chairman

Thomas M. Cooley High School
15055 Hubbell
Detroit 48227
Ben S. Chinitz, Principal
Charles H. Hohner, Chairman

MINNESOTA

North High School
Fremont and 17th Avenue N.
Minneapolis 11
Chester M. Johnson, Principal
Seymour Yesner, Chairman

Roosevelt High School
4029--28th Avenue South
Minneapolis
John C. Wells, Principal
Edna D. Sanders, Chairman

University High School
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis 55455
Robert Anderson, Principal
Rodger L. Kemp, Chairman

MISSISSIPPI

Greenville High School
Greenville
J. T. Hall, Principal
Mrs. Nell H. Thomas, Chairman

MISSISSIPPI (continued)

Meridian High School
Meridian
Charles A. Armstrong, Principal
Mrs. Winifred Farrar, Chairman

MISSOURI

Central High School
3616 N. Garrison Avenue
St. Louis
A. C. Phillips, Principal
William Katz, Chairman

Clayton High School
1 Mark Twain Circle
Clayton 5
Nathaniel Ober, Principal
Clara White, Chairman

McCluer High School
1896 S. Florissant Road
Florissant
Dr. Merlin Ludwig, Principal
Thomas G. Moore, Chairman

McKinley High School
2156 Russell Blvd.
St. Louis 63104
Dr. Mildred Hiller, Principal
Mr. Perrine, Chairman

Normandy Senior High School
6701 Easton
St. Louis
C. E. Potter, Principal
Helen Shipman, Chairman

St. Louis Country Day School
425 N. Warson Road
St. Louis 63124
David M. Pynchon, Principal
Daniel Durgin, Chairman

MONTANA

Billings Senior High School
425 Grand Avenue
Billings
C. E. Borberg, Principal
Charles Nesbit, Chairman

NEBRASKA

Central High School
124 N. 20th Street
Omaha 68102
J. Arthur Nelson, Principal
Josephine Frisbie, Chairman

Hastings High School
1100 W. 14th
Hastings
Thomas Keating, Principal
Darrel Lloyd, Chairman

Holy Name High School
2909 Fontenelle Blvd.
Omaha 68104
Rev. Mother M. Eleanor, OSM,
Principal
Sr. Mary Adolorata, OSM, Chairman

NEVADA

Pahranaget Valley High School
Alamo
David Anderson, Principal
Robert Hansen, Chairman

Reno High School
Booth Street and Foster Drive
Reno
David W. Finch, Principal
Mrs. Mabel Brown, Chairman

Virgin Valley High School
Mesquite
Blaine W. Allen, Principal
Lynn P. Dunn, Chairman

NEW HAMPSHIRE

Central High School
Beech Street
Manchester
Harold B. Snyder, Principal
William T. Dennehy, Chairman

Nashua High School
Elm Street
Nashua
Patrick J. Morley, Principal
Anne M. McWeeney, Chairman

NEW HAMPSHIRE (continued)

The Phillips Exeter Academy
Exeter
Richard W. Day, Principal
Richard F. Neibling, Chairman

St. Paul's School
Concord
Rev. Matthew M. Warren, Rector
Herbert Church, Jr., Chairman

NEW JERSEY

Miss Fine's School
Princeton
Shirley Davie, Headmistress
Mrs. Anne B. Shepherd, Chairman

Tenaflly High School
Tenaflly
E. H. Van Vliet, Principal
Mrs. Elizabeth Bream, Chairman

NEW MEXICO

Sandia High School
7801 Candelaria Road N. E.
Albuquerque
Leroy Brannon, Principal
Mrs. Nora B. Nunnally, Chairman

NEW YORK

Amherst Central High School
4301 Main Street
Snyder 26
John Scheller, Principal
Richard McLaughlin, Chairman

Bayside High School
32 Avenue and 208th Street
Bayside, Queens 11361
Mrs. Gertrude Waldeyer, Principal
Nathan Mazer, Chairman

Canisius High School
1180 Delaware Avenue
Buffalo
Rev. L. D. Munteer, SJ, Principal
Rev. Albert T. Bartlet, SJ, Chairman

Christopher Columbus High School
925 Astor Avenue
The Bronx 10469
Edward R. Kolevzon, Principal
T. Eisman, Chairman

Fordham Preparatory School
East Fordham Road & Third Avenue
Bronx
Rev. Eugene J. O'Brien, SJ, Principal
Jerome Martin, Chairman

Manhasset High School
Manhasset, Long Island 11030
Warren McGregor, Principal
Travis E. Harris, Chairman

Notre Dame High School
150 Corlaer Avenue
Schenectady 12304
Mother St. Vivienne, SCND, Principal
Mother St. Hannah, CND, Chairman

Sleepy Hollow High School
210 N. Broadway Street
North Tarrytown
Dr. Henry M. Richardson, Principal
George Gilmore, Chairman

NORTH CAROLINA

Claremont Central High School
Third Avenue N. E.
Hickory
W. D. Cottrell, Principal
Mrs. Genella Allison, Chairman

Fike Senior High School
Wilson
W. Willard Woodard, Principal
Doris Thorne, Chairman

OHIO

DeVilbiss High School
3301 Upton Avenue
Toledo
Irvin Conrad, Principal
Ruth Smith, Chairman

OHIO (continued)

Fairmont High School
3301 Shroyer Road
Kettering 45429
Alfred Bolender, Principal
Mrs. Ruth J. Evans, Chairman

John Marshall High School
3952 West 140th Street
Cleveland
Lee B. Bauer, Principal
John Lincks, Chairman

John R. Buchtel High School
1040 Copley Road
Akron 44320
Oscar L. Schneyer, Principal
Margaret L. Oechsner, Chairman

Shaker Heights High School
Shaker Heights, Cleveland 44120
Russell H. Rupp, Principal
George G. Starr, Chairman

Talawanda High School
Oxford 45056
Alton Rudolph, Principal
Mrs. Berniece Shrader, Chairman

Upper Arlington High School
1650 Ridgeview Road
Columbus 43221
Joseph A. Dorff, Principal
Charles G. Will, Chairman

OKLAHOMA

Capitol Hill High School
500 S. W. 36th
Oklahoma City
Clarence B. Breithaupt, Principal
Marguerite Danford, Chairman

Central High School
212 E. Sixth Street
Tulsa
Carl L. McCafferty, Principal
Mrs. Louise B. Davidson, Chairman

OREGON

Jefferson High School
5210 N. Kerby Avenue
Portland
Roy O. Malo, Principal
William See, Chairman

PENNSYLVANIA

Abington Senior High School
Abington 19001
Dr. W. Eugene Stull, Principal
Edward R. Seltzer, Chairman

Eastern High School
R. D. #1
Wrightsville
Carl M. Payne, Principal
Harvey E. Smith, Chairman

Germantown Friends School
31 West Coulter Street
Philadelphia 19144
Henry Scattergood, Principal
Richard H. Tyre, Chairman

Mount Lebanon High School
Cochran Road
Pittsburgh
Nelson Mills, Principal
Janice Mellinger, Chairman

Olney High School
Front Street & Duncannon Avenue
Philadelphia
Marcon L. Stewart, Principal
Mildred E. Osler, Chairman

Penn Hills High School
12200 Garland Drive
Pittsburgh 15235
Joseph Wherry, Principal
Mr. McLeister, Chairman

Schenley High School
Bigelow Blvd. & Center Avenue
Pittsburgh
F. Gardner Gillen, Principal
Harry O. Ellison, Chairman

Upper Merion High School
Crossfield Road
King of Prussia
R. R. Strine, Principal
Mrs. Marie Wolfskill, Chairman

SOUTH CAROLINA

Dreher High School
700 Adger Road
Columbia
Arlie W. Whittinghill, Principal
Patti Parker, Chairman

Greenville Senior High School
Greenville
Donald Linn, Principal
Myrtle Tanner, Chairman

SOUTH DAKOTA

Rapid City High School
809 South Street
Rapid City
Donald Varcoe, Principal
Mrs. Verna Deimer, Chairman

TENNESSEE

Central High School
306 S. Bellevue
Memphis
R. E. King, Principal
Mrs. Louise A. Rauscher, Chairman

Chattanooga High School
865 East Third Street
Chattanooga
Creed F. Bates, Principal
Armina Smallwood, Chairman

TEXAS

Austin High School
3500 Memphis Avenue
El Paso
Charles H. Harris, Principal
Mrs. Margaret O. Briggs, Chairman

Bellaire Senior High School
5100 Maple
Bellaire 101
Harlan Andrews, Principal
Mrs. Shirley W. Wiley, Chairman

Douglas MacArthur High School
2923 Bitters Road
San Antonio 78217
Ben H. Harris, Principal
Mrs. Betty Porter, Chairman

Robert E. Lee High School
P. O. Box 30
Baytown
Dr. Henry M. Armstrong, Principal
Jane Mitcham, Chairman

Thomas Jefferson High School
2200 Stadium Road
Port Arthur
Clyde Gott, Principal
Mrs. Isabella Bjerring, Chairman

Woodrow Wilson High School
100 S. Glasgow Drive
Dallas
Paul Harris, Principal
M. Dell Webb, Chairman

UTAH

Bryce Valley High School
Tropic 84776
Kerry D. Nelson, Principal
Mrs. Marian Shakespear, Chairman

East High School
840 South 13th East Street
Salt Lake City
Joseph W. Richards, Principal
Catherine A. Collins, Chairman

Olympus High School
4055 South 23rd East
Salt Lake City
Harold W. Handley, Principal
Diane Hansen, Chairman

VERMONT

Springfield Senior High School
Springfield 05156
Armand A. Guarino, Principal
John W. Ragle, Director of the
Humanities Project

VIRGINIA

Granby High School
7101 Granby Street
Norfolk 23505
Donald G. Griffin, Principal
Mary Knight, Chairman

VIRGINIA (continued)

Washington Lee High School
1300 N. Quincy
Arlington 22201
O. U. Johansen, Principal
Dorothy A. Nelson, Chairman

WASHINGTON

Bellevue High School
601--108th SE
Bellevue
H. H. Heidenreich, Principal
Ruth S. Gibson, Chairman

John R. Rogers High School
1622 Wellesley Avenue
Spokane 99207
Paul C. MacGown, Principal
Elizabeth Herbert, Chairman

Sammamish High School
100--140th Avenue SE
Bellevue 98004
Fred E. Knoell, Principal
Walter Hopkins, Chairman

Stadium High School
111 N. E Street
Tacoma
Albert Hayes, Principal
Richard Lewis, Chairman

WEST VIRGINIA

Stonewall Jackson High School
Washington & Park Street
Charleston
G. E. Steadman, Principal
Stuart P. Armstrong, Chairman

WISCONSIN

Appleton High School
Appleton
Herbert H. Helble, Principal
Mrs. Jack Burroughs, Chairman

East High School
Green Bay
D. R. McMasters, Principal
William E. Otto, Chairman

Oshkosh High School
375 N. Eagle Street
Oshkosh 54901
Carl Traeger, Principal
Gladys Veidemanis, Chairman

West High School
Green Bay
G. E. Dauplaise, Principal
Mrs. Isabelle Bacon, Chairman

WYOMING

Natrona County High School
Casper
William Reese, Principal
Frances F. Feris, Chairman

APPENDIX B

INSTRUMENTS DEVELOPED FOR USE IN THE STUDY

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Instrument No. 1

(HSC)

HIGH SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS

Principal _____ High School _____
 Address _____

1. Please check the following items that describe your school:

Public _____	Comprehensive High School _____	Three-year High School _____
Independent _____	Technical High School _____	Four-year High School _____
Parochial _____	Special (please indicate) _____	Six-year High School _____
		Other (please indicate) _____

2. What was the size of your last year's graduating class? _____ graduates

3. What proportion of last year's graduating class enrolled in four-year colleges? _____%

4. What are the salaries paid by your school to fully-qualified English teachers? \$_____ year, minimum \$_____ year, maximum

5. What is the average cost per pupil of educating a boy or girl in your school in grades 10-12? \$_____ per year.

6. On the basis of the following scale of occupations, will you indicate an approximate profile of your students' families?

Professional and managerial occupations	_____%
Highly skilled occupations	_____%
Semi-skilled occupations, including minor "white collar" occupations	_____%
Rural or agricultural occupations	_____%
Unskilled or slightly skilled occupations (manual occupations, unskilled domestics, waitresses, etc.)	_____%

7. Pupils attending your school come from areas that are best described as primarily: (please rank by number, i.e., 1 for largest proportion; 2 for next largest)

a. Urban residential _____	e. Suburban industrial _____	h. Small town (under 5,000) _____
b. Urban industrial _____	f. Suburban commercial _____	i. Rural-Farm _____
c. Urban commercial _____	g. Scattered over entire city (larger than 5,000) _____	j. Other (please specify) _____
d. Suburban residential _____		

PLEASE RETURN TO: National Study of High School English Programs
 123 English Building
 University of Illinois
 Urbana, Illinois

Instrument No. 2

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE A

N.B. In order to make this study as worthwhile as possible, it is necessary that you express your reactions as they really are and not as you think we want them to be. Do not feel humiliated to put down something that you might think unscholarly or unsophisticated. Again, the accuracy and completeness with which you answer each question will be extremely important in determining the ultimate value of the questionnaire. If you think any answer needs explanation or qualification where no room is given, use the margin for your comment.

1. High School graduated from: _____
_____ City State

2. High school's grade range: 7-12 9-12 10-12

3. Were all your high school years spent there? _____

If not, what other high school(s) did you attend and for what years?

4. Number of years of English required in your high school: _____

List the electives that you also took in English:
(required courses not included)

5. Are you now enrolled in a college? _____

If so, where?

What year?

Major field?

6. Indicate the category that best describes the type of English class you were in while in high school:

- _____ College preparatory
 _____ General (unselected)
 _____ Honors course

- _____ Special English class for
 gifted students
 _____ Other (please specify)

7. Besides the NCTE Achievement Award, what other academic honors did you receive while in high school? _____

8. Do you feel that any teacher(s) you had was especially helpful in making you effective in English? _____

If so, which? _____

What subject did he (they) teach? _____

Why was he helpful? _____

9. List any reading selection(s), fiction or non-fiction, that you read while in high school that was personally significant. (article, play, poem, essay, novel, etc.)

Comment briefly on the reason(s) for its (their) significance.

10. As best you can remember, how many books (required and non-required) per month did you read during your high school years? _____

Did you read any magazines regularly? _____

If so, which ones? _____

11. In grammar school, high school, or college was there any especially memorable experience (a period, course, distinction, phase in English) that significantly helped promote an interest in English or the English language? (please specify)

What helped promote a disinterest in English or the English language: (please specify) _____

12. What phase(s) of English was emphasized too much in your high school English courses? (composition, grammar, reading, literature, speech, etc.) _____

What phase(s) received too little emphasis? _____

What phase(s) received just enough emphasis? _____

13. Was there anything outside of courses directly related to writing that helped you significantly in your writing? (foreign language, summer institutes, outside clubs, logic, tutoring, etc.)

14. List the extra-curricular activities connected in any way with English in which you participated while in high school. (school paper, literary club, drama club, etc.) _____

Which one do you think was most valuable? _____
 Why? _____

15. As best you can remember, how often did you write themes, both inside class and outside? _____

16. Briefly characterize the type of grading your themes most often received. (i.e., Were they simply given a letter grade with few marginal comments? Were they graded simply on grammatical accuracy? Was theme content also graded?) _____

17. How would you rate your high school preparation in English in comparison to that of students you have known from other high schools?

___ above average ___ average ___ below average

18. How would you rate your high school preparation for your first English composition course in college?

___ above average ___ average ___ below average

19. Do you think you would have become just about as good a writer as you are now without your particular high school training? _____

Comment: _____

20. In regard to the general atmosphere of your high school, rate the following categories numerically, indicating the emphasis they received in your high school. (i.e., 1 for most emphasis, 2 for the next, etc. Mark x for those which do not apply.)

___ school supported organizations
 ___ athletics
 ___ scholastic activity

___ outside social clubs
 ___ general indifference to
 school activities in any
 way

21. Did you read a great deal on your own before high school? _____

22. How would you rate the attitude in your home toward reading?

___ favorable ___ indifferent ___ unfavorable

23. Which library did you use most often while in high school?

___ public ___ high school ___ personal

24. Number the following in order of importance insofar as you used each as a criterion for selecting books for your reading. (i.e., 1 for most important, 2 for the next, etc. Mark x for those which do not apply.)

☐ recommendation of teacher
☐ recommendation of fellow students
☐ book lists provided by school, teachers
☐ browsing in the library
☐ recommendation of parents
☐ recommendation of public librarian
☐ recommendation of high school librarian
☐ other (please specify) _____

25. As best you can, describe the content and structure of the English courses of each of your last three years in high school.

10th grade:

11th grade:

12th grade:

Which year of English did you find most valuable? _____
 Why?

What else has happened to you that you feel might be significant to us in establishing the reason for your outstanding achievement in English? Feel free to comment at length. (please use back of this page if more room is needed)

 Signature

Present address: _____

Please return to: 123 English Building, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

Instrument No. 3

(PQ)

PRINCIPAL'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Name of School: _____ Principal _____

Note: It might be that some of the following questions, as stated, are not altogether appropriate to your school. If there is additional related information that is significant because of the unique qualities of your situation, please add notes as necessary.

1. To which accrediting organizations does your school belong, i.e., state, area, etc.? (please specify) _____

2. What are the school requirements for graduation in terms of the number of units or year courses? _____

State requirements? _____

3. What are the requirements for admission to your high school? _____

4. What educational qualifications must teachers have to teach in your school?

College graduation _____ Five years of College _____
 Credit hours in major field _____ Credit hours in education _____
 Other qualifications (please indicate) _____

5. What is the average number of years of teaching experience of your staff? _____

6. How many classroom teachers are on your staff? _____

7. What is the total student population of your school? _____

8. How many new teachers were hired as replacements this year? _____
 Last year? _____

9. How long are class periods? _____ minutes. Number of instructional periods per day? _____ How many school days per year? _____ days.

10. How many of your teachers have fewer than three years of experience? _____

11. What was the size of last year's tenth grade class (63-64)? _____
 How many girls in last year's graduating class (63-64)? _____ Boys? _____
 What was the size of the previous year's graduating class (62-63)? _____

12. What proportion of your students take at least one foreign language? _____ %
 On an average, how many years of foreign language do these students take? _____
 What languages are offered? _____

13. As a matter of policy or practice, how much homework is assigned per day at the following grade levels: 10th _____ hours 11th _____ hours 12th _____ hours
14. Does your school provide for special groupings of academic classes? _____
If so, what is the principal basis used to assign pupils to special classes? (e.g., achievement or aptitude tests, school marks, judgment of teachers, department head or guidance counselor, choice of student, choice of parent)
(please be specific) _____
15. Does your school provide for acceleration of very able students? _____
If so, how is such acceleration provided: _____
16. To what extent is your school used to train teachers? _____
17. In what way(s) does the principal supervise instruction in subject areas? _____
18. Please identify the characteristics of your school that contribute most to its successful English program and rank in their order of importance.

19. Describe briefly any experimental programs or innovations in teaching techniques that your school has used during the last three years in academic areas.

Instrument No. 4

(48Q1)

DEPARTMENT HEAD QUESTIONNAIRE

School _____ English Department
 Address _____ Chairman _____

Note: Whereas most of the questions on this questionnaire call for rather precise quantitative answers, others are designed to sound out the objectives and practices in the teaching of English that you and your teachers consider most important and effective. Now some of these "objective" questions may seem to be over-lagging or equivocal. For example, in question #36, dealing with the aims of teaching reading, nearly all of the responses may appear to be worthy objectives. But our desire is that you rank them in the order of emphasis or importance corresponding to the actual practice in your department. In this way we may finally compare those established and traditional objectives which may have no real bearing on the effective teaching of English with those which actually do have pragmatic value indicated by their continual use in schools with good English programs. Thus, you can see that it is important that all of the questions be answered realistically.

1. How many years of English are required by the high school for graduation? _____

2. Can some of the graduation requirements in English be satisfied by completion of specialized electives in English ____ Yes ____ No

If so, how many semesters? ____ Which electives? _____

3. Please indicate the number of semesters of each of the following courses which you offer.

	One Sem.	Two Sems.	Three Sems.	Four Sems.	More than Four Sems.
English 9	()	()	()	()	()
English 10	()	()	()	()	()
English 11	()	()	()	()	()
English 12	()	()	()	()	()
Speech	()	()	()	()	()
Drama	()	()	()	()	()
Debate	()	()	()	()	()
Journalism	()	()	()	()	()
Creative writing	()	()	()	()	()
Remedial reading	()	()	()	()	()
Speed reading	()	()	()	()	()
Remedial writing	()	()	()	()	()
Developmental reading	()	()	()	()	()
Business English	()	()	()	()	()
Other: (please specify)	()	()	()	()	()

4. Is there a specific course of study (printed) for each year of English? Yes No

5. Please check any of the following techniques being used in teaching English in your school.

- | | |
|---|---|
| ☐ a) lay readers | ☐ h) advanced placement classes |
| ☐ b) team teaching | ☐ i) special classes in remedial reading |
| ☐ c) large group instruction | ☐ j) English classes for gifted students |
| ☐ d) small group instruction | ☐ k) English classes for slow students |
| ☐ e) programed learning | ☐ l) demonstration teaching |
| ☐ f) teaching machine | ☐ m) interschool visitation |
| ☐ g) ungraded classes | ☐ n) Other (please specify) |

Comment:

6. Mark the approximate percentage of time most often allocated to the teaching of each of the following phases in English during each of the last three years.

	<u>10th</u>	<u>11th</u>	<u>12th</u>
Literature	%	%	%
Oral Composition (Speech)	%	%	%
Written Composition	%	%	%
Language			
Grammar and usage	%	%	%
Vocabulary development	%	%	%
History	%	%	%
Reading (as a skill)	%	%	%
Other Skills			
Reference skills	%	%	%
Spelling	%	%	%
Punctuation, capitalization, etc.	%	%	%
Outlining	%	%	%
Other (please specify) _____	%	%	%

7. Please estimate the approximate number of words written for English class each week in each of the three years.

10th _____ words 11th _____ words 12th _____ words

8. Which of the following community facilities are readily available to the students in your school? (X for available, XX for available and used extensively.)

- () Public Library () Legitimate Professional Stage
() Art Museum () Community Theatre
() Opera () Other (please specify) _____
() Concerts

9. How many student plays were performed last year? (excluding general assemblies)

List the last three full-length student dramatic productions.

10. Does your school sponsor an extra-curricular drama club?
 _____ Yes _____ No
11. How does the school recognize the outstanding achievements of students in English? _____

12. In the last five years, how many of your students (i.e., in the department) have you recommended for NCTE Achievement Awards? _____
13. Is the teaching of English formally combined with any other curriculum? (e.g., history) _____ Which curriculum? _____ At what grade levels? _____
14. Please estimate the approximate percentage of your working time spent on each of the following activities:

Teaching classes	_____ %	Meeting with parents	_____ %
Planning lessons, grading papers	_____ %	Visiting classes	_____ %
Conferring with administrators	_____ %	Arranging meetings	_____ %
Conferring with teachers	_____ %	Other (please specify)	_____ %

How many released periods are you given to perform the non-teaching activities? _____

How much additional pay do you get as department chairman?
 \$ _____ per year.

How is chairman chosen? _____

For what period of time? _____

15. In regard to your basic responsibilities as English department chairman, please rank the following numerically according to their importance in your school. (Rank all that apply to your situation as 1 for most important, etc.)
- _____ To establish or revise curriculum.
 - _____ To aid the principal in selecting new teachers.
 - _____ To work with heads of departments in other subjects to coordinate instructional procedures.
 - _____ To help service the department, i.e., in supplying and coordinating instructional aids, texts and materials.
 - _____ To help new teachers.
 - _____ To evaluate and make written reports on the effectiveness of teachers.
 - _____ To help the principal with administrative details.
 - _____ Other (please specify) _____
16. Please indicate the degrees you hold, the length and type of teaching and administrative experience you have had, and any writing you have done for publication.

Degrees: _____

Experience: _____

Publications: _____

17. How many English classes are now in process with the following enrollments:

above 40 _____	21-25 _____
36-40 _____	16-21 _____
31-35 _____	below 16 _____
26-30 _____	

18. How many full time English teachers are there in the department? _____
How many part-time English teachers? _____

19. How many English teachers with a doctorate? _____
with a Master's degree plus extra hours? _____
with a Master's degree only? _____
with an undergraduate major in English? _____
with an undergraduate minor only in English? _____
with neither an undergraduate major nor minor in English? _____

20. What is the average number of pupils per English teacher in your school? _____

21. What is the average number of classes assigned each full time English teacher? _____

22. Are teachers assigned a study hall in addition to regular classes?
_____ Yes _____ No
Are teachers assigned a period of preparation in addition to regular classes?
_____ Yes _____ No

23. Please indicate which of the following responsibilities (if any) are assigned to English teachers. After each activity list the number of English teachers assigned each as an out-of-class responsibility. (If activities are conducted during a regular class hour, write only "0". If they are conducted as an extra pay assignment, write only "\$".)

yearbook _____	student council _____
newspaper _____	corridor duty _____
dramatics _____	lunchroom duty _____
clubs _____	other activities _____
	(please specify) _____

24. On which of the following methods do you rely to provide promising ways of providing for the continuing education of English teachers. (Rank three most frequently employed in order of use; rank three in order of effectiveness.)

	Order of use	Order of effectiveness
institutes with featured speakers	_____	_____
workshops	_____	_____
departmental meetings	_____	_____

	Order of use	Order of effectiveness
lectures by outside speakers	_____	_____
conferences with teachers	_____	_____
demonstration teaching	_____	_____
released time for program development	_____	_____
attendance at professional meetings	_____	_____
summer courses	_____	_____
meetings with outside consultant or scholar	_____	_____
other (please specify) _____	_____	_____

25. What provisions are made for supervision of English teaching?

26. Do the teachers within the English department cooperate in planning and revising the English program? Yes No

27. Which of these teaching aids are at the disposal of every teacher? (please check X.)

<u> </u> phonograph	<u> </u> teaching machine
<u> </u> library of recordings	<u> </u> tape recorder
<u> </u> filmstrip projector	<u> </u> opaque projector
<u> </u> motion picture projector	<u> </u> overhead projector
<u> </u> television	<u> </u> reading accelerator

28. Which is the most prevalent approach to the teaching of literature in each of the following grades?

10th grade: thematic
 types of literature
 according to anthology
 chronological
 selected authors

11th grade: thematic
 types of literature
 according to anthology
 chronological
 selected authors

12th grade: thematic
 types of literature
 according to anthology
 chronological
 selected authors

29. What is the average number of supplementary titles used in each college preparatory English course, grades 10-12? (Please consider titles that the school supplies, or that a significant part of a class buys, not simply assigned "outside reading.") _____

30. What specific major readings are required at different grade levels by the department in college preparatory courses?

10th _____

11th _____

12th _____

31. Rank numerically in order of importance three of the following objectives in the teaching of literature in senior high school using 1 for most important, etc.

- _____ The student's development through literature--his greater insight into human experience.
- _____ The student's acquaintance with the literary tradition, defined not merely as his knowledge of titles, authors, etc., but also as his awareness of major ideas which run through literature of all times.
- _____ The student's understanding of literature as art, of the various genres as art forms.
- _____ The student's ability to comprehend the meaning and the development of a particular work of literature.
- _____ The student's aesthetic response and appreciation of each work of literature as a significant and unique experience.

32. Rate numerically in order of importance and practice three of the following approaches in the teaching of composition in 11th grade college preparatory classes.

- _____ emphasis on elements of style.
- _____ emphasis on originality in style, diction, and expression.
- _____ emphasis on organizing ideas clearly, on elaborating and illustrating with care.
- _____ emphasis on correct grammar, mechanics, and sentence structure.
- _____ emphasis on clear thinking, logic.
- _____ emphasis on conclusions, ideas, content.
- _____ emphasis on giving the student the opportunity to sound out his own ideas, to expand his horizons.

33. Rank numerically in order of importance three of the following objectives in the teaching of language in your school using 1 for the most important, etc.

- _____ To enable the student to know the rules of correct English.
- _____ To enable the student to identify grammatical units and constructions.
- _____ To enable the student to express his ideas clearly and forcefully.

- ☐ To give the student practice in revising faulty sentences.
☐ To help the student analyze and thus understand his language through logic and order.
☐ To help the student keep the language within the bounds of convention and propriety.
☐ To help the student appreciate the heritage of his language.
☐ To help the student recognize the varieties and complexities of language and thereby give him more refined tools of communication commensurate with his maturity and ability.
☐ To help the student understand the structure of his language so that he may more readily learn a foreign language.
☐ Other (please specify) _____
34. Does your school employ a specially trained reading teacher?
 ☐ Yes ☐ No
35. What special texts or materials, if any, are used in your school to develop reading skills in English classes?

36. Rank numerically three of the following objectives in the teaching of reading as a skill according to their emphasis and importance in your school using 1 for the most important, etc.
- ☐ To help the student increase his reading rate.
☐ To enable the student to understand better what he reads in other subject areas (i.e., as a service to the whole school program).
☐ To help the student become a more critical and active reader.
☐ To help the student enlarge his reading vocabulary.
☐ To enable the student to recognize the varieties of reading and reading assignments and thus to enable him to adjust his speed and technique to the purpose of the assignment and the type of selection.
☐ To enable all students to reach their appropriate grade-level achievement on standardized reading tests.
☐ To help the student improve his interpretive facility through oral reading.
☐ To reinforce the writing program by having students read and compare models of good writing.
☐ Other (please specify). _____
37. Rate numerically the following criteria used for evaluating student writing according to their emphasis and importance in each of the last three grades. Rank all that apply, 1 for the most important, etc.
- ☐ ☐ ☐ usage, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, mechanics.
☐ ☐ ☐ sentence structure (as style) word choice.
☐ ☐ ☐ appearance of paper, proper format, protocol.
☐ ☐ ☐ content, clarity of thought and organization.
☐ ☐ ☐ appropriate development.
☐ ☐ ☐ accommodation of grading to students' needs.
☐ ☐ ☐ imagination and individuality.
☐ ☐ ☐ others (please specify). _____

38. In relation to what criteria has the English department set its standards for promoting student achievement? _____

39. What features of your program in English are unique to your school or district? What features appear to you to be especially strong?
(Please comment at length.)

Instrument No. 5

REQUEST FOR VISITING CLASS

NATIONAL STUDY OF HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH PROGRAMS

To the English teacher:

The University of Illinois is making a two-and-a-half-year study of high school English programs in approximately one hundred schools throughout the country. The project is sponsored by the National Council of Teachers of English and supported by a grant from the U. S. Office of Education.

Because your school has been recommended as having a distinctive and interesting program, a team of two or three observers representing the University of Illinois and the project staff will visit your school _____. It is not our intention to interrupt the educational program of the school; on the contrary, we hope to see the usual activities of a typical school day. If for any reason you would prefer that some classes not be observed, will you please indicate them below by period. We hope to visit as many classes as practical, but because of the limits of time it will be impossible to see all of them. In some instances observers may stay for only part of a class period, and in others observers may come well after the period has begun.

We look forward to meeting you, to seeing your school in operation, and to discussing some of your practices and problems in a short meeting on one of the afternoons of our visit. We are grateful for your generous cooperation.

Period _____ Room _____ Class _____

Period _____ Room _____ Class _____

(Please return to your Department Head) Teacher's name _____

Instrument No. 6

(PI)

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PRINCIPAL

School _____ Principal _____
Address _____ Interviewer _____

I. PRINCIPAL'S BACKGROUND

1. How long have you been principal of this school? _____

2. What degrees do you hold? _____

Briefly, what has been your teaching and administrative experience?

_____ years teaching _____ (field)

_____ years administration _____ (type)

II. DEPARTMENT STRUCTURE AND TEACHERS3. As you view your position as principal at _____,
what is your most important responsibility?Will you describe briefly the instructional organization of your
school? (i.e., To what extent do you directly supervise instruction?)

4. How are teachers recruited for your school?

Where do most come from?

5. What problems have you encountered in the last few years in staffing
the English department?6. What support are teachers given (travel money, released time?) to
attend conferences, meetings, or to take additional college work?
What about sabbatical leave provisions? To what extent do teachers
take advantage of these incentives?I. OBJECTIVES AND STUDENT BODY7. Do you have a written statement of objectives that embraces the
educational philosophy of the whole school program? (Secure a copy.)8. What is the range of academic differences among students in your
school?

9. How do you make allowance for educating significantly different boys and girls?

II. ENGLISH CURRICULUM

10. In the whole context of your school program, how would you rank the English department? (top--middle--towards the bottom) Why? Would the same have been true 5 years ago?
11. Whom do you consider to be the outstanding teachers in the English department?
12. What do you feel is the most important function of English? (e.g., primarily a service function? a forum of ideas? a subject in which to teach moral and spiritual values? general education?)
13. New developments and concepts in the teaching of science and mathematics have introduced radically new courses in those areas. Do you feel there is need to reconstruct or revolutionize the content of English?

I. GENERAL

14. What would you do if a parent were to call you to complain about a book being taught in an English class?

15. (If time permits)

Would you care to elaborate on the new procedures or techniques that have been used here?

Instrument No. 7

(DHI)

ENGLISH DEPARTMENT HEAD INTERVIEW

School _____
Address _____Department Chairman _____
Interviewer _____I. BASIC RESPONSIBILITIES

1. What are the basic responsibilities of the English Department Chairman in this school?
2. Who reviews English teachers' lesson plans, and on what time basis? (i.e., long range plans, weekly or daily plans.)
3. On the average, how often do the English teachers in the school meet together? _____
4. To what business are most of these departmental meetings devoted? Could you describe two or three problems that have occupied attention during the last year?

II. ENGLISH TEACHERS

5. How are the teachers of English selected and to what extent are you involved in the selection?
6. To what extent are you, and other English teachers, involved in the selection of books for the school library?
7. How do you select your teachers for honors courses, remedial courses, and so on?
8. How much freedom does each teacher have to experiment and use his own initiative within or beyond the framework of the course of study?

9. In what year was your present curriculum developed? _____
Revised? _____
How was your curriculum developed?
10. What two or three special strengths do you see in your present program?
11. What two or three weaknesses do you encounter?

II. SPECIAL PROBLEMS

12. As a matter of practice or policy, does your department tend to rely on any unique or especially effective way of teaching vocabulary? reading? spelling?
13. What types of compositions do the students usually write and what is the usual procedure followed in correcting and returning papers? (revisions, etc.)
14. Which teachers in your department tend to encourage students to write poetry or short stories? At what grade level do students generally do such writing?
15. What provisions are made for directing the individual readings of students?

I. FINAL COMMENT

16. Are there any final comments that you would like to make concerning your exceptional program in English that we have not covered in the course of this interview?

Which teacher or teachers would you nominate as being outstanding in your department?

Instrument No. 8

(D/SCL)

CONCEPT CHECK LIST
 (for Department Head and Student Interviews)

School _____

Interviewer _____
Subject _____

The following terms represent concepts or ideas which may or may not be introduced in this school's English program. Check the grade level at which each is usually introduced, not simply as a word, but as a useful idea or functional concept. If the concept is not used, check the last column.

	<u>Before 10th</u>	<u>10th</u>	<u>11th</u>	<u>12th</u>	<u>Not Introduced</u>
1. connotation	()	()	()	()	()
2. alliteration	()	()	()	()	()
3. slanting	()	()	()	()	()
4. metaphor	()	()	()	()	()
5. blank verse	()	()	()	()	()
6. argumentation	()	()	()	()	()
7. inference	()	()	()	()	()
8. allusion	()	()	()	()	()
9. parallel structure	()	()	()	()	()
10. colloquial	()	()	()	()	()
11. epic	()	()	()	()	()
12. cliché	()	()	()	()	()
13. jargon	()	()	()	()	()
14. satire	()	()	()	()	()
15. analogy	()	()	()	()	()
16. determiners	()	()	()	()	()
17. paradox	()	()	()	()	()
18. redundance	()	()	()	()	()
19. nominative absolutes	()	()	()	()	()
20. dramatic irony	()	()	()	()	()
21. précis	()	()	()	()	()
22. sentence patterns	()	()	()	()	()
23. allegory	()	()	()	()	()
24. consistency of diction	()	()	()	()	()
25. levels of abstraction	()	()	()	()	()
26. narrative point of view	()	()	()	()	()
27. periodic sentence	()	()	()	()	()
28. conditional clause	()	()	()	()	()
29. tone	()	()	()	()	()
30. euphemism	()	()	()	()	()

Instrument No. 9

(STI)

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SELECTED TEACHER

School _____ Teacher _____
Interviewer _____

1. Has all of your teaching been done in this school?
How long have you taught in this high school?
2. What is your present teaching assignment?
3. How has your teaching schedule changed since you came to the high school?

(USE QUESTIONS 4 AND 5 ONLY IF TEACHER HAS HAD PREVIOUS EXPERIENCE.)

4. In what ways do you believe the English program at this high school is unique?
5. What problems (if any) do you believe are unique to the English program in this school?
6. What do you feel is the most important function of English? (e.g., primarily a service function? a forum of ideas? a subject in which to teach moral and spiritual values? general education?)
7. Which aspects of the English program would you like to see changed?
8. On what teaching resources do you tend to draw the most heavily in your English teaching? (If necessary, mention: audio-visual aids, books, visuals--be as vague as possible)
9. To what extent do you tend to rely on textbooks in teaching language skills and composition?

Workbooks?

What is your opinion of the books you use?

Do you know of any other texts that you would rather use?

Why?

10. To what extent can you select the literature that you use in your classes?
11. From whom do you obtain the most assistance when you encounter problems in teaching English? (Are there individuals in the school or school system? Outside of it? Could you discuss the steps you take when you encounter a problem in planning or teaching?)
12. What do you consider to be the most significant compensation for teaching English in high school?
13. What seems to be the one most disappointing aspect of teaching high school English?
14. If you were at the point of beginning your teaching career and knew what you do now about the problems, compensations, restrictions and rewards of the profession, would you still become a high school English teacher?
15. As you look back on your preparation and the experiences that you have had professionally since that time, what individuals or experiences would you say have had the most impact in determining the way in which you teach English today?

(FOR EXPERIMENTAL HIGH SCHOOLS AND SCHOOLS USING APPARENT INNOVATIONS)

Ask questions appropriate to various innovations as to their effectiveness, need for additional training and particular orientation of teachers.

Instrument No. 10

(CQ)

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR COUNSELOR

High School _____
Address _____Counselor _____
Interviewer _____

1. To what type of colleges or institutions of higher learning do most students who graduate from this school go? Do you have percentages available on last June's graduating class?
2. Has your school attempted any followup studies of graduates to determine the effectiveness of your program? If so, what have these studies suggested about strengths or weaknesses of the program in English?
3. From your vantage point as counselor, what impression do you have about any special strengths or special weaknesses of the current program in English?
4. Have you encountered any special problems or used any special procedures for programming students in English? If students are sectioned, how are sections determined?
5. What priority is English given in the registration process--that is, into which course are students first programmed, to what extent are enrollments in English influenced by enrollment in other courses?
6. Do you have available any percentile scores or standardized group tests for the school which might indicate the capacity and achievement of students in intellectual ability, in reading, or in writing?
7. Are there any general comments that you would like to make concerning the English department that we have not as yet covered?

Instrument No. 11

COUNSELOR'S CHECK LIST OF SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY CHARACTERISTICS

School _____ Counselor _____

1. How old is the main building of school plant?

- | | |
|---|---|
| ☐ 1. Less than 5 years old | ☐ 6. 25-29 years |
| ☐ 2. 5-9 years | ☐ 7. 30-34 years |
| ☐ 3. 10-14 years | ☐ 8. 35-39 years |
| ☐ 4. 15-19 years | ☐ 9. 40-44 years |
| ☐ 5. 20-24 years | ☐ 10. 45 years or more |

2. About how long has it been since the school plant received its last major renovation? (Include painting if no reconstruction work was done.)

- | | |
|---|---|
| ☐ 1. Less than 3 years ago | ☐ 6. 15-17 years ago |
| ☐ 2. 3-5 years ago | ☐ 7. 18-20 years ago |
| ☐ 3. 6-8 years ago | ☐ 8. 21-23 years ago |
| ☐ 4. 9-11 years ago | ☐ 9. 24 or more years ago |
| ☐ 5. 12-14 years ago | ☐ 10. Has never had a major renovation |

3. Roughly, how old is the average house or apartment house in the area from which most of your school's pupils in grades 9-12 are drawn?

- | | |
|---|---|
| ☐ 1. Less than 5 years old | ☐ 6. 25-29 years old |
| ☐ 2. 5-9 years old | ☐ 7. 30-34 years old |
| ☐ 3. 10-14 years old | ☐ 8. 35-39 years old |
| ☐ 4. 15-19 years old | ☐ 9. 40-45 years old |
| ☐ 5. 20-24 years old | ☐ 10. 45 or more years old |

4. The residences in the area served by your school are best described as primarily

- | | |
|---|--|
| ☐ 1. expensive private homes | ☐ 5. moderate-rental apartments |
| ☐ 2. moderate-priced homes | ☐ 6. low-rental apartments |
| ☐ 3. low cost homes | ☐ 7. low income areas |
| ☐ 4. high-rental apartments | ☐ 8. about equally apartments and homes |

5. Pupils attending your school come from areas which are best described as primarily

- | | |
|--|---|
| ☐ 1. urban residential | ☐ 6. suburban commercial |
| ☐ 2. urban industrial | ☐ 7. scattered over the entire city (larger than 5,000 people) |
| ☐ 3. urban commercial | ☐ 8. small-town (under 5,000 people) |
| ☐ 4. suburban residential | ☐ 9. rural-farm |
| ☐ 5. suburban industrial | ☐ 10. Other (specify) _____ |

6. Estimate the average daily percentage of absenteeism in your school over the current school year.

- () 1. 2% or less
() 2. 3-5%
() 3. 6-8%
() 4. 9-11%
() 5. 12-14%

- () 6. 15-17%
() 7. 18-20%
() 8. 21-23%
() 9. 24-27%
() 10. 28% or more

7. About what percentage of your pupils are in each of the following school programs?

[illegible]

Instrument No. 12

(LQ)

LIBRARIAN'S QUESTIONNAIRE

School _____ Librarian _____
 Address _____

The National Study of High School English Programs is collecting data in a variety of ways including questionnaire, interview and direct classroom observation in an attempt to describe the programs and practices that characterize English teaching in one hundred highly regarded high schools throughout the country. Certainly one of the most important aspects of any high school English program is the school library--its general character, the extent of its holdings and the accessibility of its materials. This brief questionnaire is designed only to provide the study with basic facts concerning your library. If you would like to make further comments about unique features or problems of your library and its program, please feel free to add them to the back of the questionnaire or to append additional pages. Thank you for your time and cooperation.

After you have completed this form, please enclose it in the accompanying envelope and send it to the National Study of High School English Programs, 123 English Building, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois 61803.

Size and Volume

1. How many volumes are in the library? _____ volumes
 How many volumes per pupil? _____ volumes
2. How many books does your library circulate in a typical week? _____ books
 per week
3. How much money is allocated to the library annually for
 the purchase of library books? \$ _____ per year
 How much per pupil? \$ _____ per pupil
4. How many books did your library purchase last year? _____ books
 How many the previous year? _____ books
 Of the books purchased last year, how many were
 duplicate titles or replacements? _____ books
5. How many full time librarians are there in your library? _____ librarians
 How many part-time librarians? _____ part-time
 librarians
 How many employed clerks? _____ clerks
6. What hours is the library open? From _____ to _____
 How much time before school opens? _____ minutes
 How much time after school closes? _____ minutes
7. Is the library used as a study hall? _____ Yes _____ No

8. To what extent do students have access to the library? (i.e., Are assignment or permission slips required? May students browse at will? May students use the library during any free period? Please explain in detail.)
9. What percentage of your books are on open shelves? _____%
10. How many students will your library accommodate? _____ students
11. In a typical period, how many students use the library? _____ students
12. Do you maintain a card catalogue? _____yes _____no
13. Describe the cataloging procedure used in the library.

14. Does your library subscribe to the Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature? _____yes _____no
Vertical File Index? _____yes _____no
15. Does the school maintain a small library of professional books and journals for teachers? _____yes _____no
16. Does the school provide for sale of paperbound books? _____yes _____no
If yes, explain briefly how this provision is made. _____

17. Please describe the procedure for selecting books for the library.
(To what extent do departments or teachers help in the selection?
What guides do you use?)
18. Are there any limitations other than limited budget imposed on selection of library books? (Please explain if yes.) _____yes _____no

19. Please attach a list of periodicals which your library currently subscribes to.
20. Please describe any special features or unique problems of your library.

Instrument No. 13

(BL)

BOOK LIST

School _____ Address _____

Please check if book is available.

1. Agee, James, A Death in the Family
2. Austen, Jane, Pride and Prejudice
3. Bronte, C., Jane Eyre
4. Bronte, Wuthering Heights
5. Buck, Pearl, The Good Earth
6. Butler, The Way of All Flesh
7. Bunyan, Pilgrim's Progress
8. Burdick and Lederer, The Ugly American
9. Camus, The Stranger
10. Conrad, Joseph, The Heart of Darkness
11. Dickens, Charles, The Tale of Two Cities
12. Dostoevski, Brothers Karamazov
13. _____, Crime and Punishment
14. Dreiser, Theodore, An American Tragedy
15. Drury, Advise and Consent
16. Faulkner, The Sound and the Fury
17. Galsworthy, John, The Forsyte Saga
18. Golding, Lord of the Flies
19. Hardy, Thomas, Return of the Native
20. Hawthorne, Nathaniel, The Scarlet Letter
21. Hemingway, Ernest, Old Man and the Sea, The
22. Hersey, The Wall
23. Hugo, Victor, Les Miserables
24. Huxley, Brave New World
25. Joyce, Portrait of an Artist
26. Lee, To Kill a Mockingbird
27. Lewis, Sinclair, Babbitt
28. Mann, Thomas, The Magic Mountain
29. Maugham, Of Human Bondage
30. _____, Razor's Edge
31. Melville, Moby Dick
32. Mitchell, Margaret, Gone with the Wind
33. Orwell, Animal Farm
34. _____, 1984
35. Pasternak, Dr. Zhivago
36. Paton, Cry, the Beloved Country
37. Rand, Atlas Shrugged
38. _____, The Fountainhead
39. Salinger, Catcher in the Rye
40. _____, Franny and Zooey
41. Steinbeck, Grapes of Wrath
42. Thackeray, Vanity Fair
43. Tolstoi, Anna Karenina
44. _____, War and Peace
45. Uris, Exodus
46. Wallace, Ben Hur
47. White, Once and Future King
48. Wolfe, Thomas, Look Homeward, Angel
49. _____, You Can't Go Home Again
50. Wylie, Generation of Vipers

Instrument No. 14

(SIA)

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR ADVANCED STUDENTS

School _____ Interviewer _____
Section or Grade _____ No. of Students _____

(Before beginning this interview schedule pass out STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE (SQA). Allow students ten minutes to complete the questionnaire; then collect it and, after a brief introduction to the study, administer from the front of the class the CONCEPT CHECK LIST; again allowing ten minutes to get the information. Use the remaining time in the period to administer this interview.)

1. What aspects of the English program have you found particularly beneficial or interesting? I.e., what are its outstanding features?

2. About how many assignments are you given for out-of-class reading?

How are these assignments made?

What happens in class after you have read the books? (Book reports, reviews? Specific examples.)

3. What do you usually do in classes when you read a novel in common?

a play?

a poem?

4. How much have you helped to select the readings used in your course?

How do you feel about the books presently being taught?

5. What kinds of writing assignments are you given?

How are the writing assignments made?

6. How are the papers you write marked? (Marginal notes, grades only, double grades?)

What kind of corrections do you find most helpful?

7. Do you have conferences with teachers about your writing?

How often?

How helpful are these conferences?

8. Do you have assignments in grammar?

How are these assignments made?

What do you do with them?

Instrument No. 14

(SQA)

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ADVANCED STUDENTS

High School _____ Grade _____
 Age _____
 Check: ☐ boy ☐ girl

1. How many years have you been in this high school including this year?
 _____ years.

2. Indicate what you did during your last summer vacation.

☐ Traveled with family ☐ Employed away from home
☐ Went to camp ☐ Other (please describe) _____
☐ Attended summer school _____
☐ Worked at home _____

3. What is your most typical activity after school? [For each column (After School and Evening), indicate your most typical activity with a 1 for your most typical activity, 2 for the next, etc., as long as the categories apply.]

After School Evening

_____	_____	Employment at home
_____	_____	Employment away from home
_____	_____	Studying or reading
_____	_____	Watching television
_____	_____	School athletics
_____	_____	School clubs
_____	_____	Clubs outside of school
_____	_____	Other (please describe) _____

4. In regard to the general atmosphere of your high school, rank the following activities numerically, indicating the emphasis they receive (i.e., 1 for activity receiving greatest emphasis, 2 for the next, etc.)

☐ School supported activities	☐ Outside clubs and organizations
☐ Athletics	☐ General indifference to school activities
☐ Scholastic achievement	

5. Estimate as closely as you can the number of books that you read last year. _____ books.

Indicate the usual sources of these books.

☐ School library	☐ Borrowed from friends
☐ Public library	☐ Borrowed from teachers
☐ Home library	☐ Purchased
☐ Classroom library	☐ Other (please indicate) _____
☐ University or college library	_____

6. What book or author have you read in class or out of class that has been most significant to you?

Why do you select this book or author?

What book or books, if any, would you like to suggest be added to the English program in your school?

7. Rank the following in order of importance insofar as you have used each as a criterion for selecting books for your personal reading. (i.e., 1 for most important, 2 for the next, etc. Rank all that apply.)

- ____ Recommendation of teacher
- ____ Recommendation of fellow students
- ____ Book lists provided by school or teacher
- ____ Browsing in the library
- ____ Recommendation of parents
- ____ Recommendation of public librarian
- ____ Recommendation of high school librarian
- ____ Other (please specify) _____

8. Approximately how frequently do you write in English class? In checking the appropriate category, consider all writing of at least paragraph length, such as compositions, letters, written tests, etc.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| ____ Twice a week or more | ____ Once every three weeks |
| ____ Once a week | ____ Once a month |
| ____ Once every two weeks | ____ Less than once a month |

9. What part of the English program would you like to see changed?

How would you like to see it changed?

Instrument No. 16

(SIT)

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TERMINAL STUDENTS

This is an open-ended interview. Its length and content will depend entirely upon the particular class and the rapport the interviewer establishes with the students.

To begin the interview, the observer might pursue some of the responses on the questionnaire. For example, he might ask how many students chose answer #1 in question #5 ("Learning to read faster and better"); and if enough respond, he could ask questions relating to this area--how they are taught, what progress they have made, what books they use, what they read as a result of this help, etc. A more spontaneous and even casual approach should reveal some interesting and candid information here.

Record notes below.

Instrument No. 17

(SQT)

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TERMINAL STUDENTS

High School _____

Grade _____

Age _____

Check: () boy () girl

1. How many years have you been in this high school including this year?
 _____ years.

2. What did you do during last summer vacation?

____ Traveled with family
 ____ Went to camp
 ____ Went to summer school

____ Worked at home
 ____ Worked away from home
 ____ Something else (please explain)

3. What do you usually do after school?

____ Work at home
 ____ Work away from home
 ____ Study or read
 ____ Watch TV
 ____ Practice sports

____ Go to a school club
 ____ Go to the "Y" or community center
 ____ Go to another club
 ____ Something else (please explain)

4. What things do you usually do in English class?

1. ____ Listen to stories or read aloud
2. ____ Read stories and books silently
3. ____ Write sentences
4. ____ Write paragraphs or compositions
5. ____ Do grammar exercises from text books
6. ____ Discuss problems with the teacher
7. ____ Take spelling tests
8. ____ Something else (please describe) _____

5. What things do you feel are the most help to you in English class?

1. ____ Learning to read faster and better
2. ____ Learning to write better
3. ____ Learning parts of speech
4. ____ Learning how to spell
5. ____ Learning new words
6. ____ Learning about people (authors, people in stories, others)
7. ____ Learning about other places or other times
8. ____ Something else (please describe) _____

6. Which one of these things is the most popular in your high school?

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. ____ Athletics | 4. ____ Clubs outside of school |
| 2. ____ Good school marks | 5. ____ Nothing special |
| 3. ____ School clubs | |

7. List any book that you have read in the past year that was really interesting to you:

8. Where do you go to get books to read?

____ School library
____ Public library
____ Home
____ Classroom library

____ A friend or classmate
____ The teacher
____ Drugstore or bookstore
____ Somewhere else (please tell
where) _____

9. In a sentence or two, write about what you're going to do when you finish your schooling.

Instrument No. 18

(GIT) GROUP INTERVIEW WITH ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

School _____ Interviewers I _____
 Address _____ II _____
 Principal present ____yes ____no ____teachers present of total _____

(Before beginning the interview, distribute the ISSUES OPINIONNAIRE and allow ten minutes for its completion. Do not collect the OPINIONNAIRE until the interview is complete so that you may obtain the names of teachers who distinguish themselves during the interview.)

- I 1. What attempts do you make as a department to seek support for your work from teachers in other academic subjects?

What success do you have?

2. To what extent is the class schedule interrupted for general school meetings, testing, assemblies, athletic contests, and so on?

How much are classes disrupted by P.A. announcements, students called for counseling, and so on?

What is the department policy on contests, outside programs?

Do such contests generally promote or impair instruction?

- II 3. If your department were given a sizeable increase in annual budget, say three or four thousand dollars, how would you like best to spend it?

4. What responsibility do you have for teaching speech and oral expression?

- I 5. Do you have a humanities course in this high school?

Are you planning to have one?

What is your attitude toward humanities courses in the high school?

6. What responsibility do you have for teaching logic or "straight thinking," including propaganda analysis, slanting, drawing inferences, making generalizations?

- II 7. Recently many individuals have asserted that the greatest neglect in most high school English programs is the failure to teach reading. What is your position concerning the teaching of reading in your high school English program?

8. James Conant has stated that 50 percent of the time in high school English should be spent on composition. What is the position of your department concerning this view?

Do you spend half of your time on composition instruction?

- I 9. It has been asserted that practically all student writing should stem from reading in literature. What is your feeling about this?

What is your practice?

- II 10. What direct or indirect methods do you employ to help promote student understanding of mass media? (i.e., films, TV, music, art, newspapers)

- I 11. A perennial question in the teaching of English has to do with which literature to teach. One school maintains we do not teach enough modern literature, and another that recent literature is not good enough or ready enough for the students. What is your feeling about teaching recent or current literature in high schools?

Will you cite some examples?

NATIONAL STUDY OF HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH PROGRAMS

Scales for Judgment of Group Interview with Teachers

Unanimity of opinion

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Diversity of opinion

High "esprit de corps"

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Low "esprit de corps"

Teacher-department head
relationship (permissive)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Teacher-department head
relationship (authoritarian)

[Describe any apparent divisions or conflicts in department.]

Nanes of teachers standing out in the Group Interview that should be interviewed the following day, as applicable.

NATIONAL STUDY OF HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH PROGRAMS

Issues in Teaching English
School _____

This questionnaire is designed to record your immediate and candid views on a number of current issues in the teaching of English in the secondary schools. As with all real issues, there is probably a tenable position at either extreme and there is no completely "right" or "wrong" answer to any of the questions. The project staff, however, is very much interested in ascertaining your views and the collective opinion of your department on the issues that follow. In responding to the various questions, please consider them in the context of the totality of high school English teaching--not in relation to an isolated or atypical class that might stand out at the moment.

Please check the number of years you have taught high school English: a() less than 1 year
b() 1-5
c() 6-10
d() 11-15
e() 16-20
f() more than 20

Please check the appropriate column that most accurately reflects your attitude concerning each of the following issues.

	I agree a()	I am not sure b()	I disagree c()
1. Language content should be taught as an integral part of English according to an organized plan rather than introduced as the need occurs in relation to writing and usage of students.			
2. Students must be given freedom to select literary works, even if such freedom means they occasionally choose inferior works at certain stages of their development.	a()	b()	c()
3. Novels and plays adapted to suit the abilities of slower students are essential to a good English program because they afford these students an acquaintance with the best in literature.	a()	b()	c()
4. Though the experience of reading a worthwhile piece of literature may mean little to a student at the moment, he will generally be able to recall the selection and appreciate it later on.	a()	b()	c()
5. Students will become better writers if they are allowed frequent opportunities to express themselves imaginatively by writing stories and poems rather than if they are restricted to expository forms.	a()	b()	c()
6. Literature, composition and language are most effectively taught as separate courses.	a()	b()	c()
7. The high school English teacher's most important responsibility is to teach composition.	a()	b()	c()
8. Virtually all student writing should grow out of the literature read and discussed by the class.	a()	b()	c()
9. It is necessary to teach some literature (primarily poems and short stories) through close textual analysis to help the student develop an appreciation of good literature.	a()	b()	c()
10. No composition or theme should be returned to a student which has not been rigorously examined for technical errors.	a()	b()	c()
11. Because of the increasing emphasis on the spoken word, more stress must be placed on the skills of speaking and listening, even if this means devoting somewhat less time to literature or written composition.	a()	b()	c()
12. Students learn more about writing if they write about their personal experiences rather than about literary subjects.	a()	b()	c()
13. The proper choice of high school literature should be that which can be comprehended and appreciated at the moment by the majority of the class.	a()	b()	c()

(Please turn over)

Issues in Teaching English--2

	<u>I</u> <u>agree</u>	<u>I am</u> <u>not sure</u>	<u>I</u> <u>disagree</u>
14. Memorization of words and their meanings is of considerable value in extending the range of a student's useful vocabulary.	a()	b()	c()
15. Because language patterns vary constantly according to use, it is unrealistic to insist on a single standard of usage among students.	a()	b()	c()
16. Instruction about the structure of language is necessary to one's learning to use the language proficiently.	a()	b()	c()
17. There is more value in assigning four themes a month to be graded specifically for technical errors than in requiring two themes a month to be graded comprehensively for diction, grammar, sentence structure, content, logic, and development.	a()	b()	c()
18. Unless students read frequently and widely, they will not develop their writing potential adequately.	a()	b()	c()
19. A literature program in which selections are grouped around topics or themes offers the best approach to developing permanent appreciation.	a()	b()	c()
20. Given the choice, it is more important that each student write something each week than that each paper be evaluated closely.	a()	b()	c()
21. Frequent exposure to many examples of good writing accompanied by some writing practice will do more to improve student writing than will constant practice with infrequent exposure to good stylistic models.	a()	b()	c()
22. English teachers should see to it that students write at least one term paper (or long research paper) before going to college.	a()	b()	c()
23. Literature, composition and language are best taught separately within a single English course.	a()	b()	c()
24. Practically all students in high school should occasionally be expected to write stories and poems.	a()	b()	c()
25. A critical and comprehensive analysis of a poem will do more to destroy its beauty than it will to develop literary appreciation among students.	a()	b()	c()
26. Students need to study the history of literature so that they may better understand the current trends in literature.	a()	b()	c()
27. Marking papers with a double grade (for mechanics and content) is of more benefit to students than assigning a single, comprehensive grade.	a()	b()	c()
28. Frequency of student writing is more important than less frequent, but longer and more comprehensive, writing assignments.	a()	b()	c()
29. At least once during each semester, every student should have the opportunity to give a prepared, oral presentation to his English class.	a()	b()	c()
30. If they are to develop their writing skills adequately, students should be required to revise each paper thoroughly, and teachers must check these revisions to ensure understanding and improvement.	a()	b()	c()

Instrument No. 20

(SWCL)

STUDENT WRITING CHECK LIST

This form should be completed by one of the observers after checking a sample of at least 40 or 50 student papers from a representative number of English classes.

Use numbers to approximate the order of frequency and emphasis for items I-IV.

I. Typical or average length (using written script as basis):

- | | | | |
|---------------------|-------|-------------------------|-------|
| (a) short paragraph | _____ | (d) more than two pages | _____ |
| (b) one page | _____ | (e) three or more pages | _____ |
| (c) two pages | _____ | | |

II. Indicate approximate percentage of typed papers _____%

III. Types of writing:

A. Basically expository types:

1. Literary subjects: e.g., analytical or critical essay of a poem, sketch of a character in a novel. ("Keats and the Concept of Truth in 'Ode to a Grecian Urn'"; "A Sketch of Pip from Great Expectations.") _____
2. Non-literary subjects generally foreign to student's immediate knowledge requiring research or speculation: e.g., biographical study of persons including authors, foreign policy, teenage driving, occupations. ("Three Philosophers and Their Concepts of Truth"; "The Physiognomy of Adolf Hitler.") _____
3. Non-literary subjects generally close to student experience or knowledge, e.g., personal accounts, some aspect of home life, decidedly personal opinions. ("My Idea of Truth"; "My Grandpa"; "Breakfast at our House.") _____

B. Non-expository types:

Poems, short stories, etc., sometimes considered "creative" writing. _____

IV. Emphasis of correction: (Cf. Dusel reprint from Illinois English Bulletin.)

- | | |
|---|-------|
| (a) Marking to assign a grade | _____ |
| (b) Marking to indicate faults | _____ |
| (c) Marking to correct | _____ |
| (d) Marking to teach writing and thinking | _____ |

V. Evidence of revision:

- (a) No revision of any kind _____
- (b) Gross errors (i.e., in spelling, usage and punctuation) revised _____
- (c) Words changed, sentences rephrased _____
- (d) Complete revision (many additions, deletions or complete rewriting with most significant changes made.) _____

VI. Describe one or two typical assignments or list several typical composition topics.

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

VII. Additional comments concerning the quality of 11th and 12th grade college preparatory student writing.

VIII. Obtain representative copies of school newspapers, literary magazines.

NATIONAL STUDY OF HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH PROGRAMS

109 English Building
University of Illinois
Urbana, Illinois, 61803

Questionnaire for Individual English Teacher

Name: _____ School: _____

Check sex: _____ (M) _____ (F) Address: _____

Check if part-time teacher: _____

The National Study of High School English Programs is collecting data in a variety of ways including questionnaire, interview and direct classroom observation in an attempt to describe the programs and practices that characterize English teaching in one hundred highly regarded high schools throughout the country. Because it is the most thorough and far-reaching study of its kind in more than thirty years, it may well have a considerable effect on the standards and practices of English instruction in many of our more than twenty-five thousand high schools. We are happy that your school has agreed to participate in this national project, and we want to assure you that we value the contribution you will make to the project in completing this form.

This particular questionnaire is one of the most important instruments in the entire study since it solicits information and judgment from all of the English teachers in each of the participating schools. Although it may at first seem lengthy and involved, its purpose is simple and straightforward: to record the experiences, practices and principles that characterize you as a teacher of English. Most of the questions call for ready responses and require no more than a number or a word. However, some questions call for more reflection and, in the case of the last few, brief written statements regarding your views on teaching. If further space is needed for your comments, other pages may be appended.

After you have completed this form, please enclose it in the accompanying envelope and send it to the National Study of High School English Programs, 109 English Building, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois, 61803.

Except for the few questions calling for statements, the majority of questions will be answered by a number to be recorded in the right-hand answer column. Where you find blank parentheses / () / in the answer column, record only the parenthetic number that corresponds to the appropriate category. Where you find an underlined space in the column, fill in the actual number. (e.g., For #1, in the blank before "years" fill in the number of years you have taught.)

2.

Please record answers
in this column.

1. How many years have you taught prior to this year?
2. How many classes do you currently teach each day?
3. How many of these are English classes?
4. How many pupils do you currently teach each day? (Do not count homeroom and study hall assignments.)

(1) 100 or less (3) 126-150 (5) 176-200
(2) 101-125 (4) 151-175 (6) Over 200
(INDICATE BY CORRESPONDING NUMBER IN PARENTHESES)

5. Approximately how many hours do you consider your average professional work week to be, including all school time plus additional time required to meet school responsibilities?
6. During an average week, approximately how many hours of your professional time are spent on activities a through h? (Include all school time plus additional time beyond the school day required to meet school responsibilities.)

Hours per week:

(1) Less than 1 (4) 9-12 (7) 21-24
(2) 1-4 (5) 13-16 (8) 25-28
(3) 5-8 (6) 17-20 (9) 29-32
(10) 33 or more

(INDICATE HOURS FOR EACH, a-h, BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

- a. Teaching classes
- b. Correcting papers
- c. Preparing for classes
- d. Conferring with students
- e. Attending to school routines (including study hall, homeroom, etc.)
- f. Advising student activities
- g. Attending faculty or department meetings, etc.
- h. Other (please specify) _____

6. a. ()
- b. ()
- c. ()
- d. ()
- e. ()
- f. ()
- g. ()
- h. ()

7. During an average month, approximately how many hours do you spend on activities a through e?

Hours per month:

(1) 1 or less (4) 4 (7) 7
(2) 2 (5) 5 (8) 8
(3) 3 (6) 6 (9) 9 or more

(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

- a. Attending movies or theatre
- b. Attending lectures, discussions, etc.
- c. Visiting museums (art, science, etc.)
- d. Writing for publication
- e. Other professionally related activities

(please specify) _____

7. a. ()
- b. ()
- c. ()
- d. ()
- e. ()

Please record answers
in this column.

8. During an average week, approximately how many hours do you spend on activities a through e?

Hours per week:

- (1) 0 (3) 4-6 (5) 10-12 (7) 16-18 (9) 22-24
(2) 1-3 (4) 7-9 (6) 13-15 (8) 19-21 (10) 25 or more
(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

- a. Taking college course
b. Reading books and periodicals
c. Listening to music
d. Watching television
e. Part-time employment

8. a. ()
b. ()
c. ()
d. ()
e. ()

9. What has been your most typical summer activity over the last five years (or since you began teaching)?
(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

9. ()

- (1) Employment not related to teaching
(2) Teaching summer school
(3) Working with children (e.g., camping or recreational activities)
(4) Attending summer school
(5) Traveling
(6) Reading, reflecting, planning
(7) Relaxing--personal and/or family recreation
(8) Other (please describe) _____

10. What was the level of your preparation when you began full-time teaching?
(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

10. ()

- (1) Less than a bachelor's degree
(2) Bachelor's degree
(3) Bachelor's degree plus 15-30 semester hours
(4) Master's degree
(5) Master's degree plus 15-30 semester hours
(6) Doctoral degree

11. In what kind of school did you do most of your undergraduate work?

(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

11. ()

- (1) University
(2) Four-year liberal arts college
(3) State college
(4) Teachers college
(5) Other (please specify) _____

Please record answers
in this column.

12. What was your undergraduate major in college?

(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

- (1) English
- (2) Language Arts combination
- (3) Speech
- (4) Drama or Theatre Arts
- (5) Journalism
- (6) Education
- (7) Area or field major embracing several subjects, including English
- (8) Area or field major embracing several subjects, but not including English
- (9) Other (please specify) _____

12. ()
()
()

13. What was your minor?

(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

- (1) English
- (2) Language Arts combination
- (3) Speech
- (4) Drama
- (5) Journalism
- (6) Education
- (7) Modern foreign language
- (8) Ancient language
- (9) Other (please specify) _____

13. ()
()
()

14. What degrees have you earned since you began full-time teaching?

(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| (1) None | (6) Ph.D. |
| (2) B.A. or B.S. | (7) Ed.D. |
| (3) M.A. or M.S. | (8) Special credential, e.g., administrative, guidance, etc. (please specify) _____ |
| (4) M.Ed. | |
| (5) M.A.T. | |

14. ()
()
()
()

15. How many semester hours have you taken in areas a through g since you began teaching?

Semester hours:

- | | | | | |
|---------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------------|
| (1) 0 | (3) 5-8 | (5) 13-16 | (7) 21-24 | (9) 29-32 |
| (2) 1-4 | (4) 9-12 | (6) 17-20 | (8) 25-28 | (10) 33 or more |

(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

- a. Literature
- b. English language
- c. Composition
- d. Methods of teaching English
- e. Subjects related to English
- f. Other academic subjects
- g. Education (other than methods in English)

15. a. ()
b. ()
c. ()
d. ()
e. ()
f. ()
g. ()

Please record answers
in this column.

16. Of what interest and value would courses in areas a through h be to you if such courses were available?

(1) Of great interest
and value

(3) Of little interest
and value

(2) Of some interest
and value

(4) Of no interest
and value

(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

- a. Literature surveys
- b. Literature of particular periods
- c. Literary genre
- d. Literary criticism
- e. Literature for adolescents
- f. Close studies of single authors or single works
- g. Intermediate or advanced composition
- h. Speech or drama
- i. History of the language
- j. Traditional grammar
- k. Structural or generative grammar
- l. Teaching of reading
- m. Practical methods in the teaching of English
- n. Advanced studies in curriculum and research in the teaching of English

16. a. ()
b. ()
c. ()
d. ()
e. ()
f. ()
g. ()
h. ()
i. ()
j. ()
k. ()
l. ()
m. ()
n. ()

17. To what extent does your school or system offer incentives a through f to encourage teachers to take additional course work?

(1) Frequently (2) Sometimes (3) Rarely (4) Never
(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

- a. Salary increments based on credit hours or degrees
- b. Released time in school year
- c. Sabbatical leave
- d. Arrangements for local extension courses
- e. Underwriting partial or complete cost of tuition and fees
- f. Stipends for summer study

17. a. ()
b. ()
c. ()
d. ()
e. ()
f. ()

18. Which of the following grants or fellowships have you received as an English teacher?

(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

- (1) John Hay Fellow
- (2) Commission on English Institute
- (3) State sponsored summer grant
- (4) Locally sponsored grant
- (5) University fellowship or scholarship
- (6) American Council of Learned Societies grant
- (7) Other grant or fellowship (please specify) _____

18. ()
()
()
()
()
()
()

Please record answers
in this column.

19. Excluding work completed before you began teaching, how long has it been since you have done any of the following, a through g?

- | | |
|----------------------|------------------------|
| (1) Less than a year | (5) 5-10 years |
| (2) 1 year | (6) More than 10 years |
| (3) 2 years | (7) Never |
| (4) 3-5 years | |

(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

- a. Completed a college English course
b. Completed a college education course
c. Attended a local or regional meeting of English teachers
(other than a school or district meeting)
d. Attended a state meeting of English teachers
e. Attended an annual meeting of NCTE or CCCC
f. Taken part in a voluntary English workshop
g. Conferred with a specialist on English or the teaching
of English (either in an individual or group conference)

19. a. ()
b. ()
c. ()
d. ()
e. ()
f. ()
g. ()

20. How long has it been since you have traveled in the areas listed below, a through e?

- | | |
|----------------------|------------------------|
| (1) Less than a year | (5) 5-10 years |
| (2) 1 year | (6) More than 10 years |
| (3) 2 years | (7) Never |
| (4) 3-5 years | |

(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

- a. Traveled more than 500 miles
b. Traveled across the United States
c. Traveled to Canada or Mexico
d. Traveled to Great Britain
e. Traveled abroad (exclusive of Great Britain)

20. a. ()
b. ()
c. ()
d. ()
e. ()

21. To which of the following professional organizations do you now belong?

(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

- (1) National Council of Teachers of English
(2) State English association
(3) Regional English association
(4) Local English association
(5) National Education Association
(6) State education association
(7) Regional or local education association
(8) American Federation of Teachers
(9) Other subject matter organizations (please specify)

21. ()
()
()
()
()
()

22. How many times have you held office in any of the above organizations?

22. _____

Please record answers
in this column.

23. Please indicate the number of professional books or articles for professional journals that you have written and the number of programs on which you have appeared at professional meetings during the past three years.

23. _____ books
 _____ articles
 _____ programs

24. Please INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER the journals on the following list which you regularly read or skim.

24. ()
 ()
 ()
 ()

- (1) Elementary English
 (2) The English Journal
 (3) College Composition and Communication
 (4) College English
 (5) The Reading Teacher
 (6) The Speech Teacher
 (7) American Speech
 (8) Other professional magazines (please specify):

25. Please list below the titles of non-professional magazines you regularly read.

26. List below the two or three most significant books that you have read during the past year.

27. Approximately how many books do you have in your personal library?

27. _____ books

28. On the average, how many books do you read in the course of a month other than those you teach in class?

28. _____ books
 per month

29. To what extent do you write creatively, if only for your own pleasure?

(1) Frequently (2) Sometimes (3) Rarely (4) Never
 (INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

29. ()

30. Which of the following teaching methods do you most frequently employ when you are teaching a typical English class? (Rank only three.)

(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)
 (1) Lecture (6) Discussion
 (2) Socratic method (7) Individual silent work
 (3) Recitation (8) Audio-visual aids
 (4) Team teaching (9) Student presentation
 (5) Small group work (10) Other (please specify) _____

30.
 a. () Most frequently
 b. () Second most frequently
 c. () Third most frequently

Please record answers
in this column.

31. Please rank three of the following according to your estimate of their importance to the success of the English program at your school.

(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

- (1) Instruction in art, music, motion picture and other art forms
- (2) Instruction in literature
- (3) Instruction in reading
- (4) Instruction in composition
- (5) Instruction in speech and oral expression
- (6) Instruction in grammar and structure of the English language
- (7) Instruction in spelling
- (8) Instruction in listening

32. In your opinion how important is each of the following aids and materials, a through z, in teaching English?

- (1) Absolutely essential
- (2) Very important
- (3) Of some importance
- (4) Not very important
- (5) Detrimental

(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

- a. Anthology of literature
- b. Class sets of novels, plays, biographies, etc.
- c. Classroom library of books
- d. Sets of 7-8 copies of titles for reading by student groups
- e. High interest, limited vocabulary materials for slow readers
- f. Special shelf of books for "mature" readers
- g. Workbooks with drills
- h. Language textbook
- i. Handbook on language for student reference
- j. Phonograph
- k. Library of recordings
- l. Filmstrip projector
- m. Motion picture projector
- n. Teaching machine
- o. Tape recorder
- p. Television
- q. Radio (AM, FM)
- r. Display table of periodicals
- s. Class set of dictionaries
- t. Movable classroom furniture
- u. Lay readers
- v. Clerical service
- w. Duplicating machine
- x. Overhead projector
- y. Opaque projector
- z. Teaching manual

31.

- a. () Most important
- b. () Second most important
- c. () Third most important

32. a. ()
b. ()
c. ()
d. ()
e. ()
f. ()
g. ()
h. ()
i. ()
j. ()
k. ()
l. ()
m. ()
n. ()
o. ()
p. ()
q. ()
r. ()
s. ()
t. ()
u. ()
v. ()
w. ()
x. ()
y. ()
z. ()

Please record answers
in this column.

33. To what extent can you choose materials (literature books, texts, records, etc.) for use in your English classes?

(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

33. ()

- (1) Complete freedom of choice
- (2) Generally complete freedom with approval from department head
- (3) Selection from wide-ranging list
- (4) Selection from "approved" list which is subject to change year by year
- (5) No choice: selections pre-determined for each grade

34. In encouraging your students to read books, which one of the following sources do you emphasize most?

(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

34. ()

- (1) School library
- (2) Public library
- (3) Local private library (college or university)
- (4) Paperbacks (purchased by students)
- (5) School sponsored book clubs
- (6) Classroom library

35. To what extent do you use the following materials, a through i, in the classroom sets for instructional purposes?

(1) Frequently (2) Occasionally (3) Never
(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

- a. Harper's Magazine
- b. Atlantic Monthly
- c. Reader's Digest
- d. Literary Cavalcade
- e. Senior Scholastic
- f. Read
- g. Practical English
- h. Newspaper (please specify) _____
- i. Other (please specify) _____

35. a. ()
b. ()
c. ()
d. ()
e. ()
f. ()
g. ()
h. ()
i. ()

36. Please indicate the importance which you place on approaches a through i to the teaching of literature.

(1) Great importance (3) Little importance
(2) Some importance (4) No importance
(INDICATE BY PARENTHETIC NUMBER)

- a. Presentation of units of literature by themes
- b. Study of literature by culture-epoch
- c. Chronological approach to teaching of literature
- d. Study of literary types
- e. Studying ideas in single works of literature
- f. Comprehensive analytical study of individual selections
- g. Study of several works by a single author
- h. Study of lives of individual authors
- i. Emphasis on guided individual reading

36. a. ()
b. ()
c. ()
d. ()
e. ()
f. ()
g. ()
h. ()
i. ()

37. Please indicate below your total working experience--professional and non-professional, teaching and administrative. Include only those jobs you have held for at least one year.

<u>Position or type of employment</u>	<u>School or Employer</u>	<u>Level of classes taught (if applicable)</u>	<u>No. of years</u>

38. What single experience, event, or person has had the greatest influence on your professional attitude and particularly on your concept of teaching English?

39. With which aspect of English teaching do you feel most successful in your present circumstance?

40. With which aspect of English teaching do you feel least successful in your present circumstance?

41. Please describe in some detail a special assignment, device or technique that you have found to be unusually successful in your teaching. Indicate that purpose of the assignment and the kind of group that you think profits most from it.

Instrument No. 22
(Directions)

NATIONAL STUDY OF HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH PROGRAMS

109 ENGLISH BUILDING
UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS
URBANA, ILLINOIS 61803

PROJECT STAFF

JAMES R. SQUIRE
DIRECTOR

ROGER K. APPLEBEE
ASSOCIATE DIRECTOR

ROBERT A. LUCAS

JOSEPH R. THOMSON

To the teacher:

The National Study of High School English Programs has designed this questionnaire to gather information about the reading habits of approximately 200 students in each of the schools included in the project. We appreciate your cooperation in administering the form and hope that the total procedure will take no more than a few minutes of your time.

The questionnaire is printed on both sides of the sheet. After passing out the questionnaire, have the students write the name of your school in the space provided at the top of the first page, but inform them that they need not sign their own names. After they have read the directions they may begin to fill out the form immediately, going on to the other side whenever they finish the first. Pen or pencil may be used. Most of the questions are straightforward and require no more than a check mark (✓), although a few require a short written statement (cf. #18 on the reverse side of the questionnaire). No special provision need be made for the few inevitable absentees.

When the questionnaires are completed (ten minutes should suffice), please put them into the same envelope along with this sheet after you have filled in the information below.

We thank you again for your cooperation and wish you continued success.

Teacher _____

School _____

Number of classes
included in
this envelope _____

NATIONAL STUDY OF HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH PROGRAMS

Reading Questionnaire

School _____

This questionnaire is part of a study being conducted throughout the United States of high school English programs and their related aspects. As part of the study, we want to learn a few things about your reading habits. This is not a test, so feel free to answer exactly the way you feel. There are no right or wrong answers.

Most of the questions can be answered by a check (like this: ☒) or a short phrase. Instructions are given where needed.

1. What is your present high school grade?
(a) ☐ 9 (b) ☐ 10 (c) ☐ 11 (d) ☐ 12
2. What is your sex?
(a) ☐ boy (b) ☐ girl
3. What program or curriculum are you taking in school?
(a) ☐ Not decided (d) ☐ Academic
(b) ☐ Vocational (e) ☐ General
(c) ☐ Commercial or Business Education (f) ☐ Other: What? _____
4. If you could be remembered here at school for one of the four things listed below, which one would you want to be?
(a) ☐ Brilliant student (c) ☐ Leader in activities
(b) ☐ Good athlete (d) ☐ Popular among students
5. Do you plan to go to college?
(a) ☐ Yes (b) ☐ Undecided (c) ☐ No
6. How much time, on the average, do you spend each week reading for homework outside school?
(a) ☐ Less than 1 hour a week (d) ☐ 6-10 hours a week
(b) ☐ 1-2 hours a week (e) ☐ More than 10 hours a week
(c) ☐ 3-5 hours a week
7. How much time, on the average, do you spend each week reading books, besides books for school?
(a) ☐ Less than 1 hour a week (d) ☐ 6-10 hours a week
(b) ☐ 1-2 hours a week (e) ☐ More than 10 hours a week
(c) ☐ 3-5 hours a week
8. What kinds of books do you like to read: (Check as many as apply)
(a) ☐ Detective and mystery stories (h) ☐ Biography
(b) ☐ Adventure, war, sea stories (i) ☐ Books on history
(c) ☐ Romance, love stories (j) ☐ Books on current national or world problems
(d) ☐ Humorous stories (k) ☐ Science books
(e) ☐ Science fiction (l) ☐ Any other kinds of books?
(f) ☐ Sports stories What? _____
(g) ☐ Poetry

9. Do you read or glance through any magazines regularly?
(a) ☐ No
(b) ☐ Yes If so, what magazines: _____
10. How many times have you used the school library in the last month?
(a) ☐ Not at all (d) ☐ 6-10 times
(b) ☐ 1 or 2 times (e) ☐ More than 10 times
(c) ☐ 3-5 times
11. Have you borrowed books from the school library this last month for use at home?
(a) ☐ Yes (b) ☐ No
12. Does your school library have all the books you usually need for school?
(a) ☐ Yes (b) ☐ No (c) ☐ Don't know
13. Does your school library have all the books you like to read just for pleasure?
(a) ☐ Yes (b) ☐ No (c) ☐ Don't know
14. How many times have you used a public library in the last month?
(a) ☐ Not at all (d) ☐ 6-10 times
(b) ☐ 1 or 2 times (e) ☐ More than 10 times
(c) ☐ 3-5 times
15. Have you borrowed books from a public library this past month for use at home?
(a) ☐ Yes (b) ☐ No If yes, about how many books all together? _____
16. What kinds of books do you usually use in the public library or take home from the public library? (that is, fiction, history, science, etc.)

17. Are the public library books you use about the same as those you use in the school library?
(a) ☐ About the same (b) ☐ Different
If different, in what way? _____

18. On the whole, which library do you prefer to use, the public library or the school library?
(a) ☐ School library (b) ☐ Public Library
Why? _____

19. Do you purchase books through a book club?
(a) ☐ Yes (b) ☐ No What club? _____
20. Have you read any books other than textbooks during the last month?
(a) ☐ Yes (b) ☐ No
21. If you did, give the total number of these books that you got last month from each of the following places. (For example, 3 borrowed from school library, 1 borrowed from public library, 0 borrowed from friends, etc.)
____ borrowed from school library _____ paper-bound books purchased from
____ borrowed from public library _____ bookstore, drugstore, etc.
____ borrowed from friends _____ purchased from book club
____ selected from home library _____ other: what? _____

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION CARD

Name of high school: _____ Date: _____

Class & Grade: _____ Instructor: _____ Observer: _____

Grouping: A _____ C _____ T _____ Other (specify) _____

Number of Students: _____ Time Observed: _____

Assignments:

Physical features of classroom:

Books, paperbacks carried by students:

Describe the activity briefly (include teacher's apparent purpose, unique features, etc.):

Describe the continuity of lesson (its relationship to previous and succeeding lessons):

Pupil involvement (circle one): completely involved 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 uninvolved

Content (order of emphasis, 1, 2, 3, only):

Literature

Reading

Mass media

Composition

Speech: formal

No content stressed

Language

informal

Other

Method (order of emphasis, 1, 2, 3, only):

Lecture,

Recitation

Student presentation ..

demonstration

Discussion

Teacher operating

Groups

Socratic

equipment (specify)

Silent work

Other

Instrument No. 24

SUMMARY OF CLASSROOM VISITATION

School _____ No. of classes observed _____
 Observer _____ Approximate number of minutes _____

- I. Indicate by numbers the order of emphasis in the following content areas (i.e., 1 for content receiving most emphasis, 2 for content receiving next emphasis, etc., using as many as apply.)

Literature	_____	Speech: formal	_____
Composition	_____	informal	_____
Language	_____	Mass Media	_____
Reading	_____	No content	_____

Other (please describe) _____

- II. Indicate by numbers the order of emphasis in the following methods:

Lecture, demonstration	_____	Discussion	_____
Groups	_____	Socratic	_____
Silent work	_____	Student presentation	_____
Recitation	_____	Teacher operating equipment	_____

Other (please describe) _____

III. Pupil Involvement

Circle the number below which corresponds to the average degree of pupil involvement in all classes observed:

Completely involved				Uninvolved		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

IV. Methods, Materials and Approaches

	Much in evidence; widespread to constant use in the department	Frequent use by some teachers	Some indication occasional use	Infrequent use suggested	No evidence of any use
(a) Silent reading in class	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()
(b) Writing in class	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()
(c) Individual conferences with teacher	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()
(d) Classroom libraries	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()
(e) Workbooks	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()
(f) Programed Instruction	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()

	Much in evidence; widespread to constant use in the department	Frequent use by some teachers	Some indication occasional use	Infrequent use suggested	No evidence of any use
(g) Team teaching	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()
(h) Independent study (library)	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()
(i) Use of single anthology for entire course	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()
(j) Use of grammar texts	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()
(k) Use of multiple sets of texts	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()
(l) Remedial reading program	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()
(m) Developmental read- ing program	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()
(n) Use of reading laboratory	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()
(o) Thematic or idea- centered teaching of literature	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()
(p) Emphasis on literary history	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()
(q) Emphasis on literature as social documentation	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()
(r) Emphasis on morals to be gleaned from literature	1 ()	2 ()	3 ()	4 ()	5 ()

Great variety of teaching methods

1 2 3 4

Little variety of teaching methods

5 6 7

Great variety of teaching materials

1 2 3 4

Little variety of teaching materials

5 6 7

V. Character of class discussion:

Students are eager to respond,
to forward opinions--challenge
and question

1 2 3 4

Students are generally unresponsive,
use stock replies when questioned,
answer in single words or phrases

5 6 7

Teachers are catalysts, they
prompt discussion but allow
students much latitude in ex-
pressing opinions, drawing
conclusions

1 2 3 4

Teachers dominate discussion; do
virtually all of the talking,
state unsupported opinions

5 6 7

VI. Literature program

Ideas evoked from the literature read, not foisted on students from teacher's predilections. (Ideas might deal with form and/or content, such as could occur through close textual analysis)

Emphasis on memory work in literature. Names, dates, authors, kinds, periods. Rote-learning heavily practiced.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

VII. Intellectual climate of the school

Accessible library, well-stocked with good books

Meager library, or one inaccessible to students

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Good general intellectual climate

Poor intellectual climate

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

VIII. Writing

Frequent and varied writing experiences in evidence

Infrequent and unimaginative assignments in evidence

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

IX. Course Content

Language, literature and composition coordinated

Language, literature and composition taught as separate courses or units--definite demarcation

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Language, literature, composition taught in appropriate proportion and sequence

Language, literature or composition taught disproportionately with little thought to sequence

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

X. Reading

Effective, coordinated instruction in reading carried on by the English department or reading specialist

No apparent effort or an ineffective attempt to teach reading as a skill by English department or reading specialists

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

XI. Organization, administration and supervision

Supervision administered by capable department chairman with time to attend to important details

1 2 3

Only nominal department chairman--or one with inadequate training or time to function

4 5 6 7

Ideas, principles and new departures of teachers supported by administration

1 2 3

Ideas, principles and new departures of teachers not supported by administration

4 5 6 7

XII. Unique, dedicated teachers

Within department are some unique, dedicated teachers who spark department

1 2 3

In general, no especially well qualified or enthusiastic teachers

4 5 6 7

XIII. Curriculum

Special program for terminal students is effective

1 2 3

No special program for terminal students or ineffective one

4 5 6 7

In general, the curriculum reflects changing conditions and patterns of the times

1 2 3

Curriculum is static, does not change or keep pace with times

4 5 6 7

Instrument No. 25

SUMMARY OF REACTION TO SCHOOL

[Each item asks for a single page response]

High School _____ Observer _____
Address _____ Dates of Visit _____
Present Date _____

(This summary sheet should be completed soon after the visit before conferring with other members of the team.)

1. What is your dominant impression of the overall educational program which you observed in the school?
2. In what way does the total program in English appear to be among the stronger or weaker aspects of the whole school program?
3. Insofar as you can determine, what seemed to be the basic attitude in the school toward the English program? (Include also relevant comments by administrators, teachers of other subjects, and students. Note evidence of attempts to support the work of the English program in subjects other than English.)
4. What special strengths of the English program seem worthy of comment. (Here summarize as much as you can your general reactions and your reactions to the comments of those in the school with whom you had contact.)
5. What overall weaknesses in the program seemed apparent to you. (Discuss in detail.)
6. Characterize in as much detail as possible the overall intellectual atmosphere of the school.
7. What unusual approaches or methods were discovered? (Refer to outstanding teachers, indicating what you believe to be the most important reasons for their individual success as English teachers.)

Instrument No. 26

QUESTIONNAIRE: FINAL EXAMINATIONS

1. Are departmental final examinations given to students?
 - (a) ☐ yes
 - (b) ☐ part departmental, part individual teacher
 - (c) ☐ no
2. If the answer to the previous question is either (a) or (b), are quarter exams and larger quizzes also departmental?
 - (a) ☐ yes
 - (b) ☐ partially
 - (c) ☐ no
3. By whom is the departmental section(s) of the final and/or quarter exams written?
 - (a) ☐ by department chairman
 - (b) ☐ by grade level chairman
 - (c) ☐ by all teachers
 - (d) ☐ by teachers with tenure
 - (e) ☐ by area supervisor of English
 - (f) ☐ by "downtown" office
4. If no part of final examinations is departmental, in relation to what criteria does the teacher construct the exam? _____

5. By whom are these examinations reviewed?
6. Are these exams kept on file?

(a) All of them	(c) Some of them
(b) Most of them	(d) None of them
7. What forms for the examination are used. (Rank order the following, 1 for type most used, 2 for type second most used, etc.)

(a) ☐ multiple choice	(e) ☐ definition
(b) ☐ true/false	(f) ☐ essay answer
(c) ☐ completion	(g) ☐ composition
(d) ☐ identification (of quotes, authors, etc.)	(h) ☐ other: please explain

8. What percentage of the following areas of English is given to each examination in each grade

	9th	10th	11th	12th	
(a)	(1) _____	(2) _____	(3) _____	(4) _____	grammar
(b)	(1) _____	(2) _____	(3) _____	(4) _____	composition
(c)	(1) _____	(2) _____	(3) _____	(4) _____	literature
(d)	(1) _____	(2) _____	(3) _____	(4) _____	speech
(e)	(1) _____	(2) _____	(3) _____	(4) _____	journalism
(f)	(1) _____	(2) _____	(3) _____	(4) _____	mass media
(g)	(1) _____	(2) _____	(3) _____	(4) _____	logic

9. Does your department give a minimum essentials examination?

_____ yes

_____ no

If yes, please indicate grade level: ___ 9 ___ 10 ___ 11 ___ 12

APPENDIX C

HANDBOOK FOR VISITATION AND OBSERVATION

FOREWORD

The purposes of this handbook are to give the school visitors an outline guide to the instruments and the methods of the school visit which we have found to be practicable, and to define, or at least to suggest, the role of the observer in gathering data not otherwise obtainable except through a complex but limiting quantitative process.

Two sections deserve special notice. Section III, dealing with the purpose of the instruments, is of special importance because it demonstrates how each device fits into the whole of the study and gives an idea of the kind of information desired from each instrument. The section enumerating the aspects of the program to be checked (Appendix), although exhaustive and perhaps discouraging at first sight, is important both because it shows the extent of the study and because it stars those aspects of the English program to be checked carefully because sufficient data is unavailable except through conscious effort of the observer.

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PART I: SCHOOL VISIT

Travel Arrangements and Expenses

All travel expenses and living costs incurred in visiting schools will be reimbursed by the project within modest but reasonable limits. Since most of the schools are at a considerable distance from Champaign-Urbana, the airlines will probably afford the most convenient method of travel. More often than not, visitors will travel in pairs and duplicate travel tickets and hotel accommodation can be arranged most easily through Mrs. Wilson at the project office. Other arrangements may be made for travel by rail, private automobile (reimbursable at the rate of \$.08 per mile for the first 100 miles and \$.05 per mile thereafter), or university automobile. However, in all instances except air travel, the traveler will purchase his own tickets and retain stubs or receipts to be submitted along with the travel voucher after the visit.

Air tickets, to be ordered by Mrs. Wilson through one of the local travel agencies, need not be paid for individually, but will be paid directly from the budget. The observers need only to sign the tax-exempt form (available in the project office) before the tickets are ordered, and the Air Travel Order after the tickets have been used. It is also unnecessary to hold used stubs for air transportation secured in this way. All reimbursable transportation expenses are to be tax free and commercial plane fares must be scheduled for tourist or economy classes unless they are unavailable.

If individual plans for travel (delays, side-trips, etc.) require special arrangements, Mrs. Wilson should be informed sufficiently early to make necessary arrangements. The project, unfortunately, does not have funds to underwrite the costs of personal trips and stop-overs, but there is no objection to arranging schedules whenever possible to accommodate individuals.

In addition to travel costs, the budget has been written to reimburse other expenses at an estimated \$16 per day, which should allow for meals, hotel

accommodations and local transportation in a fashion to which most of us are accustomed most of the time (i.e., something more than mean austerity and a good deal less than vulgar opulence). Obviously expenses will vary considerably according to the going rates of the area visited--what will provide a sumptuous meal in Billings, Montana, will buy only meager subsistence in New York City. Hopefully, the considerable economic range of the places visited will tend to balance our tenuous budget through the year, and the restraint exercised by Peter in Pocatello will allow Paul a modest way of life in Pittsburgh. For a number of reasons (most of them having to do with money) visitors are urged to accept twin occupancy in hotels whenever it is practicable. In this way, reasonable and good hotel rooms should average about \$8 per person. Usually we will know in advance something about the facilities of local hotels and their location relative to the school to be visited, and reservations will generally be made prior to the visit through the Project Office.

In the course of the visit and during the travel period, it is wise to keep an unofficial log of expenses incurred so they may be recorded on the Travel Voucher upon your return. Such items as times of arrival and departure, cost of hotels, meals and taxis, must be individually indicated on the voucher. A single copy of the Voucher, together with the necessary receipts for travel, lodging and incidentals over \$3.00, (but not for meals), should be submitted to Mrs. Wilson shortly after completion of each visit. After she has typed out the final voucher form, the observer must sign two of the copies. Approximately three weeks are apparently necessary to process this form, after which the visitor may expect reimbursement. No application need be initiated in regard to the honorarium; this money will be sent separately from the travel expenses.

The University has made provision for obtaining an advance for personal travel funds when necessary. These funds may be secured by filling in an application form available from Mrs. Wilson.

An Outline of the School Visit

This section proposes to give only a brief, yet comprehensive, outline of the general plan of a typical school visit. Although the amount of material to be gleaned from each school in the short period of two days may at first seem staggering, be assured that such a plan is indeed workable and compact enough to make the visit interesting but not exhausting.

The project staff has been corresponding with each of the schools involved in the study since the spring of this year and as a result now has a sizeable quantity of information concerning these schools on file. Returned questionnaires, courses of study, schedules of classes and school handbooks are available at the project office, and some familiarity with the school is distinctly desirable in advance of the visit. Since one of the project staff will be a member of each team, however, he might well take the responsibility of previewing the materials and orienting the visitor at a conference scheduled before the visit, or (if a conference is inconvenient) enroute to the school.

Pilot studies have indicated that it is possible for two observers to complete the visitation adequately in two days and also that the sequence of the visit described below is the most practicable. The pattern of the visit, however, is not inviolable (vis., some small schools will not require as many teacher interview periods as allotted), and it may be altered to adjust to a unique program.

Some of the reasons for the following schema are obvious. Protocol demands that the principal be interviewed first, and then the department head. The English Department Interview should definitely be scheduled for the first day after school so that the teachers have a chance to meet us before we interview them individually on the following day. The other interviews have been included on the first day so that most classroom

observation is deferred until we meet the teachers and have a better idea of which classes we want to visit and which teachers we want to interview. (During the department interview it is advisable to make notes of the teachers who appear to be outstanding.)

In regard to selecting classes to be observed and teachers to be interviewed, a tentative plan might well be made before the visit using the school's organization chart as a referrent. We will know in advance about some individual teachers. To some extent, the school schedule is likely to control the length of observations and interviews. Class periods may range from thirty-five to sixty minutes and from six to nine per day. Individual schools might have such unorthodox scheduling procedures that they have double periods, lecture periods, or alternating instructional periods that vary from week to week. However, the typical high school will have a six or seven period day beginning at about 8:30 and continuing until about 3:00 or 3:30 p.m., with each period consisting of forty-five or fifty minutes. Pilot studies suggest that two observers reach an optimum number of classes by spending approximately half a period (about twenty minutes) in each class. This allows time for the observer to note the tenor of the class, the kind of instruction, and the various other bits of information that we must have. On the other hand, observers are urged to depart from this half-period schedule should there be reason to. For example, if the class is to be engaged in silent work (reading, writing, taking a test) for the entire time, the observer might better note the assignment and the activity on the observation card and go on to another class. Or if the class is particularly interesting because of the lesson or the approach of the teacher, the visitor might well remain for the entire period.

Interviews are scheduled to provide the most relevant information from teachers in a brief period of time. In practice, the length of the teacher

interviews seems to be directly proportional to the loquacity of the teachers. Most of these sessions can be handled in about half a period, but some teachers are evidently happy to find a sympathetic ear, or at least a sounding board, and these few are likely to talk until a bell summons them to duty again.

The sample time schedule which follows assumes a two day visit by two observers in a school with a minimum of six class periods, each about forty-five minutes long.

SAMPLE TIME SCHEDULE

First Day

<u>Period</u>	<u>Observer #1</u> (staff)	<u>Observer #2</u> (visiting panel)
Home Room	Principal's Interview	
1	Principal's Interview (contd.)	
2	Department Head Interview--Concept Check List	
3	Observe 2 classes	Observe 2 classes
4	See Counselor	Librarian Interview (Book List)
	LUNCH	LUNCH
5	Interview 12th Grade Advanced Class Administer Student Questionnaire, Concept Check List	
6	Observe 2 classes	Observe 2 classes
After School	English Department Interview Administer Issues Opinionnaire Leave Teacher Questionnaires	
8	Possible drive through area, visit to public library	

Second Day

Home Room Courtesy stop at Principal's Office

<u>Period</u>	<u>Observer #1</u> (staff)	<u>Observer #2</u> (visiting panel)
1	Observe 2 classes	Sample student writing
2	Observe 2 classes or Interview Teachers	Observe 2 classes
3	Interview 10th Grade Terminal Group Administer Student Questionnaire	Interview 2 teachers
4	Observe 1 class Interview 1 teacher	Observe 1 or 2 classes
	LUNCH	LUNCH
5	Observe 1 class together Observe 1 class	Interview 1 teacher
6	Interview 2 teachers Pick up questionnaire from Counselor	Observe 2 classes Pick up questionnaire from Librarian
After School	See Principal and Department Head	
Afternoon or Evening (If possible)	Fill out Summary Analysis of Classroom Observation and Summary Reaction to School	

[Note: Observer #2 from the visiting panel has a limited number of different instruments that he will handle alone, for during four of the interviews he will be working with a staff member, asking questions and recording answers alternately. This arrangement has been made deliberately so that the visitor may gradually become familiar with the instruments and their explicit use during the first visit or two.]

We can expect considerable variety in procedures and attitudes among the schools to be visited. By and large because of the nature of our study, most of the teachers and administrators will be receptive and eager to please, rather than resentful of visitors. Some will be surprisingly candid and seem to want to "show and tell" all; others will be considerably restrained. A few of the schools already having national reputations are accustomed to troops of visitors, and from these hallowed places we can expect a less effusive welcome than we might from a small out-of-the-way high school. In some of the pilot schools we have been assigned an office or meeting room complete with coffee and doughnuts and even student guides

for every period of the day. (For some reason principals are inclined to provide visitors with the daily cafeteria fare at noon without cost.) Hopefully, the department head will be available for interviews and consultation, but not assigned to accompany and follow every step of the visitors. In general, some administrators allow VIP's carte blanche; others like to keep close tabs.

Special Problems

It is only natural that teachers will have many questions concerning the study generally and the role of the observers specifically. Individual teachers will be anxious for immediate judgments or suggestions relating to their practices and problems and it is important that we impress them with the notion that we are gathering information and ideas from them, not holding their program or performance up to some particular standard. During the pilot studies, such questions as the following were asked of the observers:

- (1) Why was this school chosen?
- (2) What will happen at the end of the study?
- (3) Will the project submit a national curriculum to all schools?
- (4) Will their school be mentioned?
- (5) Is this an evaluation of the school's English program?

In our correspondence with the schools, most of these questions have been answered, but individual teachers will still have various impressions of what we are doing. Consequently, it is well to have the group meeting with all English teachers at the close of the first day to explain our function and to allay any suspicions about our presence. However, during the course of the first day, or at any other time, if such questions as the above are put to the observers, they can usually be answered honestly but innocuously, e.g.:

- (1) Schools were chosen for a variety of reasons, but frequently on the recommendation of a state or university specialist in English teaching. I do not know exactly how this school was chosen.

(2) In the fall of 1965, a monograph will be submitted to the U. S. Office of Education. These reports will be available to all schools. Your school will be notified about this and any other reports along the way and will receive copies of all reports.

(3) No, we will not propose any universal or national curriculum. The primary objective of the project is to define what we observe in the English programs of the schools in the study, not to prescribe what anyone thinks should be in a program.

(4) Any official publication that comes from the study will mention the schools in lists or groups. If there is reason to single out schools for special mention, we will ask permission from the principal.

(5) This is not really an evaluation in the usual sense. We know in advance that there is something distinctive about the schools we are visiting, and we are not measuring your English program against some arbitrary standard.

PART II: ROLE OF THE OBSERVER

School Summary Forms

Despite the quantity of objective data that will be gathered from the numerous instruments, we are at least as interested in the more subjective aspects of the school, its teachers and its program as reflected in the summary forms which constitute the final report of the observers. These forms are important as aids in defining the function of the observer and should therefore be studied prior to the visit. What we are interested in obtaining during these visits is the function, the role, the point of view, the attitude of the students, teachers, administrators, departments . . . or, in a word, the überzeugungentätigkeitstandpunktnierengesichtspanktobliegenheitnissigkörperhaltungfunctionenheitzeitkeit. To a certain extent, these attitudes can be recorded on the interview sheets or observation cards, but the collective impression of the whole school can be realized only after the visit is completed, and thus, recorded only on the summary forms.

Particular attention must be called to the "Summary of Reaction to

the School," for unless the observer knows the kind of judgments desired here, he will probably not consciously pursue the most meaningful points or asides during the interviews. The "Summary of Reaction" consists of seven sheets, one question to each sheet. The seven questions to be answered are recorded here to give the observer some idea of the scope of our concern.

1. What is your dominant impression of the overall education program which you observed in the school?
2. In what way does the total program in English appear to be among the stronger or weaker aspects of the whole school program?
3. Insofar as you can determine, what seemed to be the basic attitude in the school toward the English program?
4. What special strengths of the English program seem worthy of comment?
5. What overall weaknesses in the program seemed apparent to you?
6. Characterize in as much detail as possible the overall intellectual atmosphere of the school.
7. What unusual approaches or methods were discovered. Refer to outstanding teachers.

Questions #4, #5, and #7 are fairly obvious and explicit items relating directly to the English department, but the others take one outside the English program and throw some light on the value of the interview with the principal, the department chairman, and the counselor, for in these interviews the opportunity to obtain these views is most readily available.

Similarly, the "Summary of Classroom Observation" should be closely studied in order to give the observer direction in observing classes, in order to orient his thinking and his note-taking.

Subjectivity vs. Objectivity

All of the schools included in this study are reported by specialists in English to have distinctive programs in English. Although the final

analysis of data will necessarily involve drawing comparisons between groups of schools--e.g., city schools vs. suburban schools; schools with homogeneous student populations vs. those with heterogeneous populations; schools which consistently win NCTE achievement awards vs. those which do not--it is important that such distinctions not be made during the course of the visit, or stressed in relations with teachers and schools. When asked about the selection of schools, the investigators are advised to stress the "reputation" of schools and such varied characteristics as size, location, socio-economic status, etc. In this respect, the observer must remain as neutral and objective as possible to avoid any possible intimidation of those in the schools.

This study, however, is based largely on the informed judgment of the observers. That is to say that although your façade will remain impeccably objective, your inner reactions should, and indeed ideally will, conform to your own concept of the ideal teaching situation. This is especially true of the observation cards and the summary analysis devices. We believe that for this study subjective analysis from trained professionals will yield more useful results, for example, than highly structured "objective" ratings, for while one who specializes in language will be especially sensitive to the content of the English language program, another will be particularly concerned with educational methodology, teaching devices and the apportionment of time, and so on, each observer bringing to the study the benefit of his specialty.

But intrinsic to our idea of the final reports of subject evaluations is the importance of two completely independent reactions to each school. We request that discussion of the school programs by the two visiting observers be confined to the area of what can be directly observed--to the

procedures and activities that can be reported objectively and that inferences or judgments be deferred until the visitors combine efforts when completing the consensus report. Until then it is best that comments about the quality of instruction, etc., be kept private in spite of one's desire to express his opinions on what seem to him either amazing or shocking occurrences. The visitor must remember that although he travels with a colleague, he records as an independent observer. More than a committee report, we are interested in the more considered and perceptive reactions that only one individual can make.

Classroom Observation

During the visit to the average school an approximate total of twenty-two classes will be observed, and what transpires in this time will be recorded on the yellow classroom observation cards. Although many of the categories to be checked seem to be totally objective, much of the card remains subjective. For instance, what one observer records as "recitation" might be called "Socratic method" by another. Or there may be some debate as to what "formal" and what "informal speech" are. The continuity of the lesson will most often be inferred from what the observer presumes has happened before and what will happen after that day's session. The recording of the homework assigned or of the physical features of the classroom on the other hand is fairly straightforward.

The use of the observation card calls for a comment or two. The side with the name of the high school is to be filled in during the actual observation. The reverse side is to be filled out immediately after the particular observation has been concluded, either as classes are passing, or during the first few minutes of the following observation period. The information on both sides of the card is subject to frequency count, but the

observer will still be asked at the end of the whole visit to record his collective opinion concerning the general tenor of classroom activity on one of the summary analysis sheets. (This instrument is explained in greater detail in Part III of this handbook.)

Interview Technique

The various interviews that are a part of this study are particularly valuable because they will collect data and opinion that are otherwise unavailable. It is very important that the interviewer attempt to elicit and record the candid observations and beliefs of teachers rather than obvious stock answers to questions. In some instances the interview will be the occasion when the teacher formulates ideas about teaching which he has not previously considered. The interviewer must therefore exercise patience and reflect an attitude of acceptance rather than one of judgment and implied criticism in spite of what may appear at times to be arrant nonsense.

A previous knowledge of the questions, and to some extent the reasons for the questions, will be more than helpful. Though there is a certain logic in the order of the questions as they appear on the interview form, the general tenor of the interview itself might well make another order more reasonable and profitable. Any rearrangement of the interview plan before the investigator is familiar with its total content, however, might unnecessarily prolong the interview or create the possibility of omitting certain questions. Generally during the course of the interview some of the questions are anticipated by the teacher and answered well in advance of their appearance. At these times, the interviewer should try to turn to the corresponding question as unobtrusively as possible and record the answer in its proper place. In other instances it may be necessary to rephrase questions or tactfully to return the discussion to relevant matters.

The questions on the interview schedules have been carefully devised and we hope that each question will yield the maximum of useful material. We feel that each part of every question is important--that little has been added merely for the sake of window dressing. For instance, on the Department Head Interview, in Question #5, "How are the teachers of English selected and to what extent are you involved in the selection?" we are interested equally in both parts of the question, for the extent to which a department chairman is involved in the selection of a new teacher is an index of his autonomy as an administrator, and his answer helps us to know how he views his function as chairman.

If the interviews are used judiciously, they can yield more information than they seem to suggest. To use the Department Head Interview again as an example, if the chairman responds quickly to Question #3 concerning how often the English teachers meet (e.g., "twice a month"), but balks visibly when he is requested to reveal the content of a few of the meetings in the previous year, we might not be unjustified in assuming that the meetings consisted of considerable routine patchwork. On the other hand, the chairman might respond quickly--almost too quickly--and give an answer that sounds like a stock response. In this case, the interviewer would do well to pursue the question and ask, as tactfully as possible, for a specific example--some problem, perhaps, that came up and was handled within the last month or two. The type of response here is again important and will help in evaluating the resourcefulness and capability of the chairman.

Once the observer becomes familiar with the interview schedules, most of them can be utilized in this fashion to obtain these all-important attitudes, opinions, roles--the nature of the department, or the intellectual atmosphere of the whole school.

PART III: INSTRUMENTS

Identification and Explanation

<u>Code</u>	<u>Instrument</u>	<u>Observers</u>	<u>Explanation</u>
PI	Principal's Interview Schedule	both	<u>Time</u>: administered upon arrival at school. <u>Procedure</u>: observers alternate asking questions and taking notes according to the Roman numerals in left hand margin. Interview with department should be arranged for that evening. (Assure principal that he <u>need not</u> be present.) <u>Purpose</u>: to obtain overall picture of school, to get inkling of particular areas to pursue in observation or interview. One of the few interviews giving total picture (other counselor). <u>Total time</u>: one period.
DHI	Department Head Interview	both	<u>Time</u>: first day, most probably after PI. <u>Procedure</u>: alternate asking questions and recording as in PI. At end, administer Concept Check List (verbally).
D/SCL	[Concept Check List]		<u>Purpose</u>: to determine role of chairman, overall view of structure in English department, certain distinctive features to be investigated, certain outstanding teachers to be interviewed--observed. Confirm English Department meeting after school and arrange for interviews with advanced (12th) and terminal (10th) groups. The student group interviews must also be cleared through the individual teachers. <u>Total time</u>: one period.
LQ	Librarian's Questionnaire	one	<u>Time</u>: first day. <u>Procedure</u>: may be used as an interview schedule if an interview seems profitable.
BL	[Book List]		Check Book List against Card Catalogue to determine library holdings. <u>Purpose</u>: to determine character of library. Straightforward, mostly objective data. <u>Total time</u>: 25-30 minutes.
CQ	Counselor's Questionnaire	one	<u>Time</u>: first day. <u>Procedure</u>: may be left with counselor early in visit to be picked up at end of second day. If counselor seems especially helpful, use last sheet of questionnaire as an interview schedule. <u>Purpose</u>: to find place of English in the total curriculum, define the student body. <u>Total time</u>: one half-period (if as interview).

<u>Code</u>	<u>Instrument</u>	<u>Observer</u>	<u>Explanation</u>
SI	Student Interview (advanced group)	one or both	<u>Time</u>: when convenient, preferably first day. <u>Procedure</u>: given to twelfth grade advanced or honors group. Must be arranged in advance through department head and teacher. At beginning of class give out SQA to be filled out as students assemble. Alternate asking questions and recording answers according to Roman numerals. Allow ten minutes (very important) at end of interview to administer Concept Check List (verbally). <u>Purpose</u>: to test students' reactions to English course, check their alertness, compare what teachers think they are teaching to what students think they are learning. <u>Total time</u>: one period.
SQA	Student Questionnaire		
D/SCL	[Concept Check List		
SQT	Student Questionnaire (terminal group)	one	<u>Time</u>: either day. <u>Procedure</u>: interview administered by one of observers after questionnaire passed out. Similar to SI except that <u>no</u> Concept Check List is administered. <u>Purpose</u>: to find out what school is doing for terminal students in comparison to advanced students. <u>Total time</u>: one period.
SI	Student Interview		
STI	Selected Teacher Interview	one	<u>Time</u>: preferably second day. <u>Procedure</u>: to be administered to eight or ten teachers singled out because of student comments, principal's or department head's citation or because they distinguished themselves during English department interview. At end, perhaps, make arrangements for teacher to administer Reading Questionnaire (RQ). <u>Purpose</u>: to determine the unique quality of each teacher, what the teacher finds particularly effective in teaching, what his views of modern and past trends are. <u>Total time</u>: + - one half period each.
GIT	Group Interview with all English teachers	both	<u>Time</u>: after school on first day of visit. <u>Procedure</u>: At beginning, pass out Issues Questionnaire to be filled out as teachers arrive. Allow no more than 8-10 minutes for this. Administer interview. At end of time, ask for six (6) volunteers to administer Reading Questionnaire to the different tracks. Announce that
IQ	[Issues Questionnaire]		

<u>Code</u>	<u>Instrument</u>	<u>Observer</u>	<u>Explanation</u>
TQ	Teacher Questionnaire		Teacher Questionnaires have been or will be placed in their mail boxes or left with department head, depending on which process is more convenient. Briefly describe form and what is to be done with it. <u>Purpose:</u> to determine the stand of the department as a whole, to observe the interaction between teachers and department head. Scales at end of interview schedule will help observer record the general tone of the interview. <u>Total time:</u> + - one hour.
RQ	Reading Questionnaire	both	Six (6) packets of questionnaires will be administered to different tracks and grade levels by 3-6 teachers, to be collected by them and mailed to us. Observers request volunteers for the six classes at end of Department Interview. Instructions for the teachers are included in each packet.
CR	Consensus Report	both	Short form to be filled out by both observers after all other forms (including summary analysis sheets) are completed. Requires one comprehensive judgment with additional comments. <u>Purpose:</u> to evaluate school as a whole.
	Classroom Visitation Card (small yellow card)		Each observer will be provided with quantities of these cards and one will be completed for each class that is observed during the two-day period. In general, the visitor should plan to stay for approximately half of the period, but, as

suggested in an earlier part of the handbook, there will be variations of this procedure. The first four lines can be filled in by the observer almost immediately, since these items are readily available and serve to identify the particular class. Categories A__, C__, T__ will describe the kind of English class if the school exercises some kind of grouping according to ability, destination, etc. of its students. The letters stand for: Advanced, College (or regular), and Terminal groups respectively. The school will more than likely have other designations for the groups, but the typical school has three tracks (or kinds of groups) that will roughly correspond to these. The schedule of classes will usually reflect the kind of class by one device or another and a moment's consultation with the department head will clarify this issue. Daily or long range assignments should be noted as well as the texts that the class happens to be using. Salient features of the classroom such as the presence of room libraries, phonographs, recorders, projectors should also be noted under "Physical features." During the course of the visit, the observer should notice the kinds of books (particularly those that have no apparent relationship to the academic discourse in the class) that are being carried about by the students. Notation by type and title will be helpful.

As the class progresses, the visitor can begin filling in the last item on the front of the card and the first item on the back--describing in some detail the purpose and features of the lesson. Besides indicating whatever continuity is apparent, the observer can use any remaining space here for brief anecdotal records to remind him of the class later on when he is filling out the summary reports. At the end of the visit (or after leaving the classroom) the observer should check off the remaining items on the observation card. These items involve considerable judgment as to the content and method of instruction. At most, only three items should be indicated under each category--the one receiving the most emphasis should be designated 1, the item receiving the next emphasis should be designated 2, etc. Pupil involvement is indicated by circling the appropriate number on a diminishing scale, from 1 (completely involved) to 7 (wholly uninvolved).

These cards will be found most useful when the observer completes the visitation and begins to summarize his reactions and judgments for the final report forms. Since the information from these cards will be summarized by the project staff also, all of the cards should be returned with the packet.

Evaluative Reports

Besides the many instruments used to record data through interview and classroom observation, there are three final report forms which incorporate the visitor's final judgment on the school. These forms should be returned to the project office with the portfolio of questionnaires, interviews and observation cards within a week after visitation. The sequence for completing the forms is indicated by the following order.

1. The Summary of Classroom Visitation

The first few items on this form may be completed simply by direct reference to the classroom visitation cards. Other items call for more reflection since they require judgments based on a variety of sights and insights collected during the two-day period. However, the form is straightforward. All evaluations can be indicated on five or seven point scales.

2. The Summary of Reaction to School

"The Summary of Reaction to the School" has been described previously. This report provides the observer with an opportunity to record impressions and opinions concerning the school and its English program that cannot be indicated by check lists. Observers are invited to be as explicit and candid as possible here. Particular anecdotal records or candid observations will be useful in support of any final statements. If necessary, additional pages can be appended.

3. The Consensus Report

Only one of the Consensus Reports should be submitted by the team of visitors after their individual impressions have been recorded on the other forms. Comments should include a statement as to whether or not the school is distinctive enough or interesting enough to warrant future investigation should any additional funds be available to the project.

APPENDIX

This appendix gives the twelve hypotheses upon which the study is based, an indication of which instruments will be critical in evaluating each hypothesis in relation to the school, and areas which require special notice by the observers during the school visit.

- I. Hypothesis: English teachers will be well prepared in English, will be active in professional organizations, and will make use of opportunities for continuing their education through inservice training, sabbatical leave programs or extension school services.
Instruments: Principal Interview, Department Head Interview, Teacher Questionnaire, Selected Teacher Interview.
Special focus: Merit pay in Principal Interview. In Selected Teacher Interview, check personal writing habits.

- II. Hypothesis: Literature programs will not be confined to a single anthology, but there will be evidence of wide reading of many kinds of good books such as library withdrawals, ample classroom libraries and guided individual reading programs. Books will not only be prevalent but accessible.
Instruments: Classroom Observation Card, Librarian Questionnaire, Book List, Teacher Questionnaire, Reading Questionnaire.
Special focus: use of reading laboratory and special reading materials. Collect and question use made of reading lists.

- III. Hypothesis: There will be a perceptibly good "intellectual climate" in all aspects of the schools. More emphasis will be placed on ideas and processes of thought than on rote learning.
Instruments: Classroom Observation Card, Student Questionnaires--Advanced and Terminal, Teacher Questionnaire, Counselor Questionnaire, Principal Interview, Librarian Questionnaire.
Special focus: in classroom observation, good titles carried by students, quality bulletin board displays, quality classroom libraries, active, stimulating discussion; in Department Head Interview, Selected Teacher Interview, active academic student organizations.

- IV. Hypothesis: Teachers will provide not only for frequent and varied writing experiences, but for meaningful motivation, for careful correction of writing and thinking, and for supervised revision of papers.
Instruments: Classroom Observation Card, Course of Study, Student Writing Check List, Student Interview--Advanced, Group Interview with English Teachers.
Special focus: other departments helping English teachers to maintain writing standards; in classroom observation, watch for a writing assignment that grows out of material discussed.

- V. Hypothesis: Schools will reveal variety in methods and materials of instruction for different groups of students. Teachers will have considerable latitude in choosing materials of instruction. There will be evidence of experimentation and innovation in the kinds of instruction.
Instruments: Classroom Observation, Student Interview--Advanced, Teacher Questionnaire, Course of Study, Department Organization Charts.
Special focus: None
- VI. Hypothesis: Language, literature and composition will be taught in appropriate proportion and not as separate entities. Instruction will be coordinated and sequential.
Instruments: Course of Study, Classroom Observation, Teacher Questionnaire, Concept Check List.
Special focus: inference on classroom observation cards concerned with "continuity of lesson"; indications in Selected Teacher Interviews of special effort to combine language, literature, composition.
- VII. Hypothesis: Schools will provide comprehensive instruction in the skills of reading for all pupils and, in addition, special instruction for pupils whose need and ability warrants more individualized procedures.
- VIII. Hypothesis: There will be in general a favorable climate for teaching as evidenced by appropriate salaries, good pupil-teacher ratios, efficient, pleasant facilities and school plant, and comparative freedom from burdensome clerical or policing obligations. Teachers will reflect positive attitudes toward teaching at all levels and administrators will respect the professional integrity of their teachers. Though teachers will vary in their methods and approaches to teaching, there will be interaction and a considerable degree of unanimity in their efforts to deal with common problems.
Instruments: High School Characteristics, Principal Interview, Department Head Questionnaire, Department Head Interview, Teacher Questionnaire, Group Interview of English Teachers, Classroom Observation.
Special focus: presence of pleasant faculty lounge, school plant environment; positive teacher attitude in Selected Teacher Interview; common support for academic standards; teachers protected by administrators from outside pressures; administrators respect professional integrity of teachers. Unanimity of opinion in Group Interview of English Teachers.
- IX. Hypothesis: There will be a reasonable and a professional approach to the supervision of teachers. Subject-oriented supervisors will work constructively with beginning teachers and help coordinate the entire program. Supervisors will be given considerable scope and responsibility in the hiring of new teachers and in writing the English program. Appropriate time for such supervision will be given to the department heads. English teachers will be organized by department led by a capable and resourceful department chairman.

Instruments: Department Head Interview, Department Head Questionnaire, Curriculum, Principal Interview, Selected Teacher Interview.

Special focus: be alert for the attitude of department head toward his role as supervisor and administrator; basis for selection of department head; department head's role in hiring and dismissing teachers.

- X. Hypothesis: Within the English department there will be some unique, dedicated teachers who enthusiastically motivate student achievements.

Instruments: Teacher Questionnaire, Selected Teacher Interview, Department Head Interview, Principal Interview, Classroom Observation.

Special focus: teacher attitude in classroom interview; student comments in interviews about teachers who have motivated well.

- XI. Hypothesis: Schools which have strong English programs for college bound students will also have special accommodations for interests and abilities of terminal students. Schools will have relatively fewer drop-outs.

Instruments: Counselor Questionnaire, Student Questionnaire--Terminal, Student Interview--Terminal, Reading Questionnaire, Department Head Interview, Group Interview of English Teachers, Course of Study.

Special focus: special reading materials, programs, etc. for terminal students.

- XII. Hypothesis: Philosophy and substance of the English program will reflect changing social and educational patterns of our times. The impact of technological innovations as they affect our society will be apparent in the content and methods of teaching English. The English curriculum will be subject to constant revaluation in the light of our changing society.

Instruments: Course of Study, Classroom Observation, Teacher Questionnaire, Counselor Questionnaire

Special focus: consciousness of mass media in classrooms, instruction in areas of mass media; literature program involving current issues; current novels being taught; new mechanical devices in evidence for instruction; elective courses in humanities; presence of innovations or experimental programs.